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ABSTRACT

This is a report of a study in two parts, one on teaching and the other on learning. The subjects of the first part were sixth graders in two different programs, one a core program and the other an immersion program. The subjects of the learning study were secondary school students and adults. The purpose of the study was: (1) to develop appropriate research methodologies, (2) to understand language teaching and learning processes by observing them under different conditions, and (3) to indicate the possible interrelations between teaching and learning in formal classrooms. Each part of the investigation describes the relevant research model and reports on the application of the model to some issues, specifically, the effects of the learning setting, the age of the learner and the attained level of proficiency. The instrument in the teaching section analyzes teaching activities and the discourse functions that characterize the verbal interaction between teacher and students. The learning study model attempts to account for the way in which information about the language is assimilated by the learner, represented by the learner as knowledge, and then used to form language responses. The teaching instrument identifies some essential differences in language teaching in the two types of classes: the learning model indicated that explicit and implicit information about language have unique roles in the solution of specific language tasks. (Author/AMH)

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The Teaching and Learning of French as a Second Language
in Two Distinct Learning Settings

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The Teaching and Learning of French as a Second Language in Two Distinct Learning Settings

Abstract

The present investigation examines the teaching and learning of French as a second language in different learning settings. Its purpose is threefold: to develop research methodologies appropriate for investigating these issues, to understand the processes of teaching and learning a second language by observing them under different conditions, and to indicate the possible interrelations between teaching and learning existing in formal classrooms.

Each part of the investigation, that is, the Teaching Study and the Learning Study, contains two aspects: first, a description of the relevant instrument or model developed by the investigators; and second, a report of the application of the model to examine some of the issues relevant to teaching and learning in second language classrooms.

Three factors are examined in the application section of both studies. These are the effects of the learning setting, the age of the learner, and the attained level of proficiency.

The Teaching Study proposes an instrument called the Language Teaching Record Scheme (LTRS) to describe and analyse classroom interactions. This instrument provides a means of analysing teaching at two different levels of detail: the activities arranged by the teacher to increase student competence in the second language, and the discourse functions which characterize the verbal interaction that occurs between the teacher and students.

The application of this instrument for the Teaching Study focuses primarily on the factors of learning setting and proficiency level by analysing classroom interactions in two Grade 6 classes. One of these is a regular French core program class and the other is a French immersion class. The instrument is able to identify some essential differences that exist between these two settings with respect to the teaching of the language.

The Learning Study proposes a theoretical model which describes the processes by which a second language is learned and used. The model attempts to account for the way in which information about the language is first, assimilated from the environment by the language learner, second, represented by the language learner as 'knowledge' of different types, and finally used in different ways to form language responses. The contingencies that determine the options in each case, that is, the type of representation that will be assigned, the way in which the information will be used are postulated in the model.

The application of the model attempts to examine one of these contingencies: specifically, the effects of setting, age, and level on the way in which explicit (primarily formal) and implicit (primarily functional) information are used to solve a specific formal language task. These factors are systematically manipulated in an experimental study. The results show that the explicit and implicit information each have a unique role in the solution of the task, and that the formal or functional condition in which the task occurs, biases that relationship.

The results from the separate aspects of the study suggest that the future research must begin to combine these investigations by examining the processes of language learning described in the Learning Study in a greater number of settings which can be formally described by the approach used in the Teaching Study.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In recent years several studies on second/foreign language teaching and learning have been conducted, investigating the role of learner factors, such as aptitude (Carroll, 1962), attitude and motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972), learning environments, such as French immersion and core programs, (Stern et al, 1976) and teaching methods (Scherer and Wertheimer, 1964) in second language achievement. Despite their valuable contributions to a better understanding of the complex processes of teaching and learning, many issues remain unsolved and demand further research. The present investigations of the Teaching Study and the Learning Study examine the effects of three controversial variables on second language teaching and learning - the nature of the learning setting, the age of the learner, and the proficiency level attained.

The question of the optimal learning setting has frequently been discussed (Rivers, 1972; Macnamara, 1973; Stern, 1973, 1978) and the effects of different environments on second language achievement have been examined in several studies (Upshur and Palmer, 1974; Krashen and Seliger, 1975; Krashen, 1976; Stern et al, 1976; Swain and Barik, 1976). The major distinction currently proposed is between the formal second language classroom setting, and the naturalistic, functional or informal language learning environment. Each of these is considered to make a specific contribution to second language competence (Krashen, 1976). The formal environment, the traditional language classroom, usually elaborates the learner's explicit knowledge of the target language system. The informal or functional environment, in which the second language is primarily used for communication and is assimilated subconsciously, enhances the learner's communicative ability in the second language. With the introduction of French immersion classes, in which the second language is the medium of instruction for various subject areas, the opportunity was provided for communicating in the target language instead of making it an object of explicit study and practice. The overall success of immersion programs in contrast to the French core program has been partially attributed to this functional use of the second language. Differences in actual classroom discourse between those two learning settings, however, have not been documented. Unless the language of the classroom is examined in more detail, no valid claim can be made that the superior linguistic performance in French of immersion students vs. core students is a result of functional language use and not, for example, a function of the amount of intensive exposure to the language.

The controversy concerning age has centered around issues such as identifying the optimal age for beginning the study of a second/foreign language (Krashen, 1973; Burstall et al, 1974; Smythe et al, 1975; Stern, 1976; Lee, 1977). The question of who are the better language learners - children, adolescents or adults, has not yet been answered satisfactorily, and the evidence fluctuates greatly as a function of the type of measure being used. Thus it appears that the question would be more aptly reformulated such that optimal age was not the issue but a documentation of the differences between language learners of different ages.

Results of a recent study (Bialystok and Fröhlich, 1977) indicate that students at a higher proficiency level utilize certain learning strategies more effectively than do those at a lower level of achievement. Proficiency level, then, may also be an essential factor affecting the way learning tasks are approached and solved. Thus it may be the case that more advanced students have assimilated the target language to a degree which allows them to make intuitive judgements about the language, whereas beginning students may have to consciously deliberate and resort to rules.

The three factors discussed above were incorporated into the research designs of both studies. The Teaching Study focused on the teaching of French in a formal and a functional setting, that is the 'regular' or 'core' program of French as a second language (FSL) versus the French 'immersion' program. The attempt was to document in a precise way the features which distinguish the activities and classroom discourse of these settings. The Learning Study, on the other hand, conducted its investigation with high school students of two different grade levels in the core program and with adults in the Civil Service Language Training Program, thus combining all three factors of setting, age and proficiency level.

The Teaching Study and the Learning Study had been in operation for one year prior to commencement of the present investigations. The direction taken in the second year appeared to provide a logical and valuable continuation of Year One's research in terms of theoretical and methodological advancement. The objectives of both studies therefore reflect both continuation and innovation. The Teaching Study attempted to achieve the following goals:

(1) to revise the preliminary Language Teaching Record Scheme (LTRS) developed in Year One.

(2) to describe and analyze the teaching of French in two contrastive learning settings, core vs. immersion.

(3) to formulate tentative hypotheses regarding the relationship between learning environment, classroom interaction and second language learning.

The specific objectives of the Learning Study were:

(1) to refine a tentative model of second language learning which was developed in Year One.

(2) to modify and refine a research instrument, the Aural Grammar Test, developed and pilot-tested in Year One.

(3) to empirically examine some relationships posited in the model, specifically, the role of Explicit and Implicit Knowledge in performance on the Aural Grammar Test.

(4) to investigate the effect of setting, age and proficiency level on performance on the above-mentioned test.

(5) to indicate pedagogical implications emanating from the results of the empirical investigation.

Method, procedures and results of the Teaching Study and the Learning Study will be reported separately. The report of each study will be concluded by a discussion of the results, an indication of the pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research.

While the Teaching Study and the Learning Study have each been conceptualized, conducted, and reported separately in the present investigation, the insights into these two aspects of language learning which have been gained by this project, would permit further research to follow the logical next step, that is, an integrative examination of teaching and learning. The metholodogy in terms of instruments and models appropriate for such an investigation are provided by the results of this study. The primary question for such future research is to examine the processes of second language learning, as described in the model of the Learning Study, in different learning contexts, as described by the system of the Teaching Study. Moreover, such studies should not be confined to classroom learning; relevant differences attributable to setting suggest the need for systematic investigations of language learning in all situations. For the present study, however, our results are restricted to the separate investigations of teaching and learning in the classroom, and the conclusions and implications of each will be reported as such.

PART ONE

THE TEACHING STUDY

Chapter II

Describing Classroom Interaction

The tendency in much of the past research on teaching has been to view teaching as a single concept in terms of the pedagogical method employed. Descriptions of language teaching have thus been based on terminology such as 'audio-lingual method' or 'grammar-translation method'. One such study by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) attempted to examine the relationship between the audio-lingual and grammar-translation approaches and the students' degree of mastery of the second language. Smith (1970) again attempted to relate the audio-lingual method to the second language achievement of students in a three-year college program. As valuable as these studies were the results remained inconclusive and controversial possibly since reference to overall methods of language teaching proved insufficient to distinguish between the actual practice of teachers in the classroom. It is evident that the specific behaviours used by two different teachers may vary greatly even though they are implementing the same teaching program or even presenting the same lesson. If these individual differences have significance for the teaching/learning process, as we believe they do, then a general reference to overall methods or approaches is inadequate for the purpose of describing second language teaching and relating that teaching to learning outcomes.

What is required for further research on the relationship between teaching and learning is a set of specified, observable teaching behaviours that can be considered a distinct treatment variable for second language teaching research. Moreover, in order to define and describe such teaching behaviours a technical language commonly accepted and understood by both teachers and researchers is required. Until the teaching act can be systematically described it is impossible to differentiate specific teaching behaviours that can then be realistically related to learning. As Rosenshine (1971) has stated "...some of the (teaching) behaviours may have no relevant educational meaning. At this time it is difficult to distinguish the relevant behaviours from the irrelevant ones." (p. 291) Thus, before any further extensive experimental research can be undertaken, it is believed that a scheme for a comprehensive description of teaching must be developed.

In the search for an adequate systematic description of teaching many classroom observation systems have been developed in recent years. Two types of observation instruments are current: (1) rating or high-inference schemes in which the coder makes a subjective judgement on a four or five-point scale to assess the behaviours observed, and (2) category or low-inference schemes which focus on "specific, denotable, relatively objective behaviours" (Rosenshine, 1971, p. 288) usually recorded as frequency counts taken at regular three or five second intervals. Because of the requirement for objectivity in the case of this project, a category scheme was considered most appropriate.

An examination of category-type observation schemes previously developed indicated that most schemes have a very general subject orientation. Very few instruments have been developed specifically for use in the second language classroom. Of these general observation schemes, the greatest number have been based on or adapted from the Flanders Interaction Analysis Technique (Flanders, 1967, 1970) and are concerned with the extent of teacher influence on the student. They assess this influence by measuring the relative proportion of 'indirect' (questioning, praising) and 'direct' teacher behaviours (lecturing, criticising). Observations of teacher and pupil interactions are recorded at three-second intervals on a two-dimensional matrix, then analyzed in terms of the relative frequencies of different kinds of behaviours. This analysis produces an I/D (Indirect/Direct) ratio which reflects the affective climate of the classroom. These studies have shown a clear relationship between teacher 'indirectness' in classroom interaction and student achievement on standardized achievement tests. However, not only are the descriptor categories very broadly defined, but they also focus solely on classroom climate and therefore do not permit the definition of specific teaching behaviours with potential pedagogical significance in the L2 classroom as is the intent of this project.

Subsequent adaptations of the Flanders interaction analysis technique by Moskowitz (1967), Jarvis (1968) and Wragg (1970) were intended for use specifically in the foreign language classroom. Moskowitz' adaptation is called Flint (Foreign Language Interaction Analysis System) and is designed to assess both verbal and non-verbal communication in the classroom as well as the kinds and amount of student and teacher talk in the target and the native language.

Other classroom observation schemes have recently been proposed based on principles of discourse analysis. Assuming that the essence of formal teaching, and specifically second language teaching, is talk, these schemes focus on classroom verbal analysis, i.e., the actual utterances relayed between teacher and students during classroom dialogue. Through an analysis of the component parts of discourse as well as their patterns and sequencing it is believed that an understanding of their pedagogical significance will result.

Among those schemes developed for L2 classroom use which include aspects of discourse analysis are several schemes which focus on specific aspects of the classroom interaction: individual language learners and teachers' differential treatment of good and poor learners (Naiman et al., 1978); teachers' treatment of error with individual learners (Chaudron, 1977); the multidimensional nature of verbal interaction between the teacher and pre-selected individual students (McEwen, 1976). In the last mentioned study by McEwen, three category dimensions are developed - content, thought and verbal functions. Observations on these three dimensions are then correlated with the aptitude, attitude and achievement scores of the students observed. Since all these schemes require that certain students be delegated as good or poor learners and that observations be limited to those students, they were not considered sufficiently comprehensive in scope to define and describe all those teaching behaviours occurring in a single class and in different teaching settings.

Perhaps the most comprehensive scheme to date for L2 classroom use has been developed by Fanselow (1977). It is a complex system called FOCUS (Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings), designed to measure the effect on learning of particular communications. Using the concept of communicative 'move' types (Bellack, 1966) as the basic unit of analysis, the FOCUS system notes five characteristics of communications: the source, the medium, the use, the content and the pedagogical purpose. Fanselow (1977) describes FOCUS as a system in which

> "...communications...are seen as a series of patterned events in which two or more people use mediums such as speech, gestures, noise, or writing to evaluate, interpret and in other ways communicate separate areas of content such as the meaning of words, personal feelings, or classroom procedure, for one of four pedagogical purposes: structuring, soliciting, responding and reacting. Therefore FOCUS distinguishes five characteristics of communications: the source, the medium, the use, the content and the pedagogical purpose." (p. 19)

This conceptual framework, as well as the set of terms used to organize and classify communications between teacher and students, provided the basis for the observation instrument developed for the specific purposes of the present study.

A classroom observation scheme, the Language Teaching Record Scheme (LTRS), was developed during Year One of the project and tested in twenty classrooms of French as a second language. In Year Two the scheme was revised, modified and again applied to second language classrooms, this time including classrooms in the alternate, semestered, enriched and immersion programs. The scheme is based on the assumption that teachers differ in the frequency with which they use specific teaching behaviours, in the ways in which these behaviours are combined and in the various features ascribed to each.

The LTRS was intended as a research instrument capable of an objective description and analysis of language teaching in a variety of language teaching situations. The scheme will not oversimplify issues by referring to methods or approaches but will attempt to differentiate specific observable behaviours that occur over a broad range of possible language teaching situations.

Language teaching/learning situations are conceptualized in terms of an Input-Process-Outcome Model shown in Figure II-1. Input consists of three factors: the teacher, the student and the context. The teacher, bringing his own personal characteristics, background, language training, attitudes and so on, into the language teaching situation, molds and directs the teaching/learning process to a great degree. The student likewise brings his own personality traits and attitudes as well as his personal language learning strategies (see Chapter V) to the learning task. The context, or social environment, refers to the attitudinal values of the community at large towards the L2 community. These generally-held attitudes are translated into moral and financial support given to the L2 programs within the school, factors which greatly influence the performance of both teacher and students in the classroom.

Insert Figure II-1 about here

Process refers to the classroom interaction itself, specifically the verbal communications and those non-verbal communications which act as verbal substitutes, relayed between the teacher and the students.

Outcome refers to the language learning, with respect to both comprehension and production skills, which occurs as a result of the teaching process and classroom interaction.

The Process variable, classroom interaction, is the major focus for the present study. The Process will be examined on two levels of detail: first, in general terms by an analysis of the teaching activities which provide a framework for the interaction; and secondly, in greater detail by an analysis of the classroom interaction based on principles of discourse analysis.

Analysis of Teaching Activities in the Second Language Classroom

Pedagogical decisions at the upper levels of educational administration (i.e. overall L2 curriculum within the school system and course outlines for one year or semester) are usually made outside the sphere of influence of the individual teacher. Decisions on the daily level, however, as to lesson plans and type of activities encouraged during a lesson are the direct sphere of the individual teacher during a lesson. Active participation in language teaching pedagogy begins then for the classroom teacher with the preparation of a daily lesson plan and the selection of appropriate activities during that lesson.

Overt behaviours occurring during these teaching activities are the actualization of the teaching/learning process which is central to our model. By analyzing these activities with reference to certain common basic features, it is possible to produce a general index to describe the teaching/learning process as it occurs in a specific classroom.

For the purpose of this analysis, activities are defined as distinct teaching/learning units, introduced by the teacher for the purpose of increasing student competence in the second language. They are characterized by two basic features, Skills developed and Strategies employed. "Skills" refers to the communication skills, either aural/oral or written, which the activity has been designed to develop. "Strategies" refers to the type of language practice emphasized by the activity, either formal or functional (Stern, 1974, 1978; see also Chapter V). The sub-categories of "Skills" and "Strategies" are defined as follows:

Skills	(1)	Aural/Oral	listening and speaking activities carried out mainly through use of the spoken word.
	(2)	Written	reading and writing activities based mainly on the written word or phonetic script.
Strategies	(1)	Formal Practice	language used to promote explicit knowledge about the L2 system, where manipulation of elements of the L2 code is of prime concern. Language use results not from a need to know or an interest in the information for its own sake, but merely as a practice vehicle for the correct forms used to convey such information.
	(2)	Functional Practice	language used in communicative situations where the content or ideas transmitted are of primary interest, with secondary emphasis on correctness of form.

A combination of the two basic features of an activity and the two sub-categories of each feature gives a two-by-two matrix yielding four cells: Aural/Oral - Formal; Aural/Oral - Functional; Written - Formal; and Written - Functional.

	SKILLS	
STRATEGIES	Aural/oral Formal Practice	Written Formal Practice
	Aural/oral Functional Practice	Written Functional Practice

Each activity is allocated to one of these four cells. When a change occurs in either the Skills or the Strategy, or both, resulting in a change of cells, a new activity is registered.

For the actual coding of classroom activities a slight elaboration of this simple matrix was required. Since the duration of classroom periods varies from 20 minutes in the elementary Core French programs to 90 minutes in secondary Semestered programs, it was necessary to record the time span of each activity not only in minutes' duration but also as a percentage of total class time. The activity was therefore recorded according to its time duration, and its percentage duration in relation to total class time available as shown in Figure II-2.

Insert Figure II-2 about here

As a practical example of allocating activities to the four-cell matrix, consider a French immersion classroom segment presenting a science lesson on photosynthesis. The teacher begins the lesson with an oral explanation of the process of photosynthesis. He continues by questioning students orally on the text. He interrupts the oral questioning to review vocabulary items related to the topic and to conduct a short phonetic drill on the same vocabulary. He then returns to the general discussion of the topic and ends the lesson by instructing students to complete written answers to questions in their workbooks.

This classroom segment would be divided into three distinct activities, with Activity 1 (lesson on photosynthesis) being sub-divided into two segments by the intrusion of Activity 2 (vocabulary review).

No.	Description	Skills	Strategy
1 (a)	Science lesson on photosynthesis	Aural/Oral	Functional
2	Vocabulary review and phonetic drill	Aural/Oral	Formal
1 (b)	Return to lesson 1,(a)	Aural/Oral	Functional
3	Written exercise	Written	Functional

Having distinguished classroom activities according to their two basic features and entered them on the matrix according to the percentage of lesson time spent on each activity, a general profile of the lesson based on activities can be prepared. Further observations taken over a number of lessons would then provide a general profile of the teaching/learning process as it occurs in a particular classroom based on activities. A profile of this type can then be compared to a similar profile obtained for other classrooms operating within the same program, in different language teaching settings, at different points in the language course, and with students of different age levels.

An activity analysis comparing two language classes which occur in two distinct language teaching settings will be presented later in this report.

Given the complexity of the teaching/learning process, this general activities profile leaves unspecified many potentially relevant aspects of the classroom dynamics. Thus, it is necessary to include in the analysis a detailed consideration of classroom verbal interaction.

Analysis of Verbal Interaction in the Second Language Classroom

In any analysis of language teaching procedures a distinction must be made between what is to be taught and how it is taught. To accommodate this distinction, we see the teacher as operating in two distinct but complimentary spheres of organization, the pedagogical and the linguistic, within the structure of an activity, shown in Figure II-3.

Insert Figure II-3 about [illegible]

Pedagogical organization refers to the conscious manner in which the teacher breaks down the content material into appropriate units for presentation to the class. We have called these content divisions 'theme' and 'topic'. Linguistic organization refers to the teacher's conscious or unconscious organization of language which acts as the vehicle of communication for the content material presented. The subcategories in this sphere are the communicative 'move' and the 'discourse function'. These two spheres of organization interact and overlap to a certain extent as they provide two different perspectives on the same linguistic data.

Insert Figure II-3 about here

A. Pedagogical Organization

The content material presented during an activity is divided into smaller conceptual units for class presentation according to major and minor thematic changes which we have labelled 'theme' and 'topic' respectively. The relationship is hierarchical: an activity is composed of one or more themes, and a theme is composed of one or more topics. A change in theme results from a major change of focus in the content under discussion, or from a shift in attention from L2 content material to student discipline or to classroom administration. A change of topic within the theme results from a minor change of focus in the content or from a change in the manner of treatment of the theme material (i.e., lecture, question-answer, drill).

To illustrate, the following lesson segment taken from a Grade 6 Core French class has been divided into theme and topics. Six topic divisions are identified within three theme divisions, all occurring within the same formal, oral teaching activity focusing on vocabulary review.

Pedagogical Organization of One Activity During a Grade 6 Core French Lesson

Activity	Theme	Topic	Segment
Vocabulary Review	1. Calendar Date	1. Days of Week	T Aujourd'hui c'est quel jour? C'est quel jour?
			S C'est mercredi.
			T Oui. Nommez les sept jours... Danny.
			S Lundi, mardi, mercredi, jeudi, vendredi, samedi, dimanche.
			T Très bien.

Activity	Theme	Topic	Lesson Segment
		2. Months of the year	Ah, nommez les cinq mois. Oui?
			S Septembre, octobre, novembre, décembre, janvier.
			T Oui. Aujourd'hui c'est janvier? Oui ou non? C'est janvier?
			S Non, ce n'est pas janvier.
			T Oui, c'est février.
		3. Phonetic Drill	Repetez: fé
			C fe
			T fé - comme ça.
			C fé
			T février
			C février
		4. Today's Date	T C'est quelle année?
			S Dix neuf cent soixante dix-huit.
			T Oui. Alors quelle est la date complète?
			S C'est mercredi, le quinze février, 1978.
			T Très bien Benny.
	2. Holiday	1. Valentine Day (Picture cues)	Ah, hier c'était quelle fête? Comment s'appèle la fête?
			S Saint...Saint Valentin.
			T Très bien, Saint Valentin. Et qu'est-ce que c'est? Oui.
			S un coeur
			T C'est un coeur.
			S C'est un coeur.

Activity	Theme	Topic	Lesson Segment
			T Oui. Et ça?
			S C'est un cupidon.
	3. Weather	1. Review of idioms (picture cues)	T Ah, quel temps fait-il?
			S Il fait beau.
			T Oui. Quel temps fait-il?
			S Il fait du vent.
			T Uh huh. Quel temps fait-il?
			S Il pleut.
			T Oui. C'est ça.

Although an analysis of lesson segments in terms of content divisions of this nature may hold interesting possibilities for the description of teaching materials, it will not be dealt with in any further detail in the present study.

The main area of interest to this project is the second sphere of organization, the linguistic organization of classroom interaction. As we have stated previously, it is now accepted that even those teachers following the same program, using the same teaching materials and engaging their students in similar activities may still differ greatly in the manner in which they actualize these elements in the classroom. It is then through a detailed examination of the verbal interaction of the classroom, the style and tone of communications between the teacher and the students, that we may gain insights into the very real differences which distinguish one teacher from another and allow us to identify specific behaviours which adequately describe the particular teaching process under observation.

B. Linguistic Organization

The Language Teaching Record Scheme (LTRS) developed for this project follows from two current systems of analysis, that of Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) and Fanselow (1977). Both these systems are based on the assumption that classroom discourse is a set of highly structured rule-governed behaviours (Bellack, 1966). This regularity permits a hierarchically structured analysis of classroom discourse.

The LTRS posits a hierarchical relationship between the smallest unit of analysis, the 'discourse function' and a higher order unit, the communicative 'move'. Thus, one or more discourse functions may occur within a single move type. The patterns and sequences of move types provide the structural framework of the discourse.

The basic unit of the present analysis, the discourse function, is a speech segment which fulfills a specific message-bearing role, such as providing information or clarification, expressing acceptance or rejection, or giving an evaluation. It is the intended message of the communication rather than the formal structure that establishes the "function" of the speech segment within the discourse. Thus, in grammatical terms a discourse function may consist of a clause, a sentence or a string of sentences provided that only a single communicative function is represented. For a description of the discourse functions found to be significant for L2 classroom discourse in our classroom validation procedures, see Appendix A.

Superordinate to the discourse function is the communicative move. The term 'move' as a unit is discourse analysis was used first by Bellack (1966) and later by many others (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Fanselow, 1977) to indicate a block or unit of spoken discourse whose sequencing structures the coherent progression of the discourse. The concept of the 'move' in discourse analysis reflects the principle that the production of coherent discourse is possible because of a basic set of shared rules about participation in the discourse. As in a game situation where one player follows another in a set, patterned sequence, so in discourse, each participant makes certain 'moves' which are acted upon by other participants in an orderly progression. This creates a sequence of coherent units in which each participant is able to recognize his role in the interchange and to realize what is expected of him in order to continue communication.

The four communicative moves in this system of analysis are Initiating, Soliciting, Responding and Reacting:

Initiating:	Initiating moves structure or set the context for subsequent interaction between students and teacher. An initiating move may indicate procedures to be followed, present the theme to be discussed or provide introductory information on the theme.
Soliciting:	Soliciting moves require a response from the person addressed, either a verbal or non-verbal response.
Responding:	A responding move occurs following a soliciting move, that is, it is an answer to a previous question or the performance of a requested task.
Reacting:	Reacting moves modify, supplement or evaluate a previous message. They may follow a previous initiating, soliciting or responding move but are not directly required by any of these move types.

More than one discourse function may occur within a single move type. For example, within an Initiating move the teacher may issue an administrative directive, provide information on the theme to be pursued, and issue a disciplinary directive before making a Soliciting move:

Move	Discourse Function	Lesson Segment
Initiating	administrative directive	Ouvrez vos cahiers à la page 20 s'il vous plaît.
	informative	Aujourd'hui nous allons regarder le devoir sur le conditionel.
	disciplinary directive	Et quand vous voulez parlez vous levez la main, vous ne criez pas.
Soliciting	specific information	Maintenant, quelle est la réponse pour le numéro un?

Many discourse functions will always occur within the same move type. The functions of accepting, rejecting or correcting, for example, must necessarily follow a previous verbal stimulus so they will always be classified as Reacting moves. Some functions, however, are less restricted as to move type and may vary as a function of their position in the sequence of the discourse. The discourse function 'repetition' for example may occur as a Soliciting, Responding or even Reacting move according to its placement in the discourse.

The discourse function 'clue' may also occur in different move types. Aware that a student is in difficulty before a response is attempted, the teacher may provide a clue by giving an additional piece of information on the topic (an Initiating move), or the teacher may provide a clue after the student has made an incorrect or incomplete response (a Reacting move).

Move	Discourse Function	Lesson Segment
Solicit	Specific Information	T Pouvez-vous conjuguer le verbe 'sortir' au passé composé s'il vous plaît, David?
		(silence indicates difficulty)
Initiate	Clue	T Souviens-toi que certains verbes sont conjugués avec le verbe 'avoir' et d'autres sont conjugués avec un autre verbe.
Solicit	Specific Information	T Quel est cet autre verbe?
Respond	Incomplete Response	S Il sort?
React	Clue	T Pour le passé composé il faut employer l'auxiliaire plus le participe passé.

It is hypothesized that the relationship between discourse functions and their affiliated move type is fixed for a majority of functions and that only a few functions will show flexibility of move type depending on position in the sequence of the interaction. The functions are listed below with their proposed move type affiliation. This hypothesis will be tested and results reported in Chapter IV of this report.

Linguistic Structure of Classroom Discourse

	Discourse Function	Move Type
I.1	informative	I. Initiate
I.2	administrative directive	
I.3	disciplinary directive	
I.4	social formality	
II.1	specific information	II. Solicit
II.2	general information	
II.3	modelling	
II.4	reading	
II.5	clue	
II.6	clarify	
II.7	verify	
II.8	translate	
III.1	complete response	III. Respond
III.2	incomplete response	
III.3	repetition	
IV.1	accept	IV. React
IV.2	reject	
IV.3	positive evaluation	
IV.4	negative evaluation	
IV.5	explicit correction	
IV.6	implicit correction	
IV.7	comment	
IV.8	noise	
IV.9	laughter	

Three additional concepts must be introduced to the analysis of classroom interaction. These are Source, Target and Modality, represented in Figure II-4.

Insert Figure II-4 about here

Source refers to the person(s) speaking: (1) teacher; (2) student; (3) group of students; (4) the entire class; or (5) a secondary source, i.e., a non-personal, technical means of communication such as text, tape, radio or television. Target refers to the person(s) addressed: (1) teacher; (2) a single student; (3) a group of students; or (4) the entire class. Modality refers to the overall mode of communication by which the message is transmitted: (1) verbal, indicating the use of the spoken word as the vehicle of communication; and (2) non-verbal indicating the use of any means of communication other than the spoken word including written text. (Since the concern here is with oral discourse, written text and other written representations of language play a secondary role and, therefore, have been designated as non-verbal modes of communication.)

For Modality, each of the Verbal and Non-verbal modes are composed of two sub-categories called 'medium'. In the Verbal Modality, medium refers to the language in which communication occurs: (1) target-lingual, indicating the use of the L2 being learned, and (2) other-lingual, indicating the use of any other language (usually the native language of teacher and students). In the Non-verbal Modality, medium again has two sub-categories: (1) physical, indicating any body movement, gesture or facial expression which acts as a substitute for the spoken word, and (2) visual, indicating the use of any type of visual aid including written text, on its own or in conjunction with the spoken word, to convey the communication.

The aspects of discourse functions and their sub-categories can be listed as follows:

SOURCE	MODALITY		TARGET
	Verbal	Non-verbal	
1. Teacher	1. Target-lingual	1. Physical	1. Teacher
2. Student	2. Other-lingual	2. Visual	2. Student
3. Group			3. Group
4. Class			4. Class
5. Secondary Source			

A classroom coding sheet was then formulated. The coding symbol for each discourse function (listed in Appendix A) is entered under the appropriate move type column. The symbols are entered vertically on the sheet throughout the duration of the class segment under observation. At the same time, the use of any Non-verbal Modality accompanying the discourse function is noted as the tape recorded lesson segment will not capture this information. See Appendix C for completed coding sheets for Core and Immersion classes respectively.

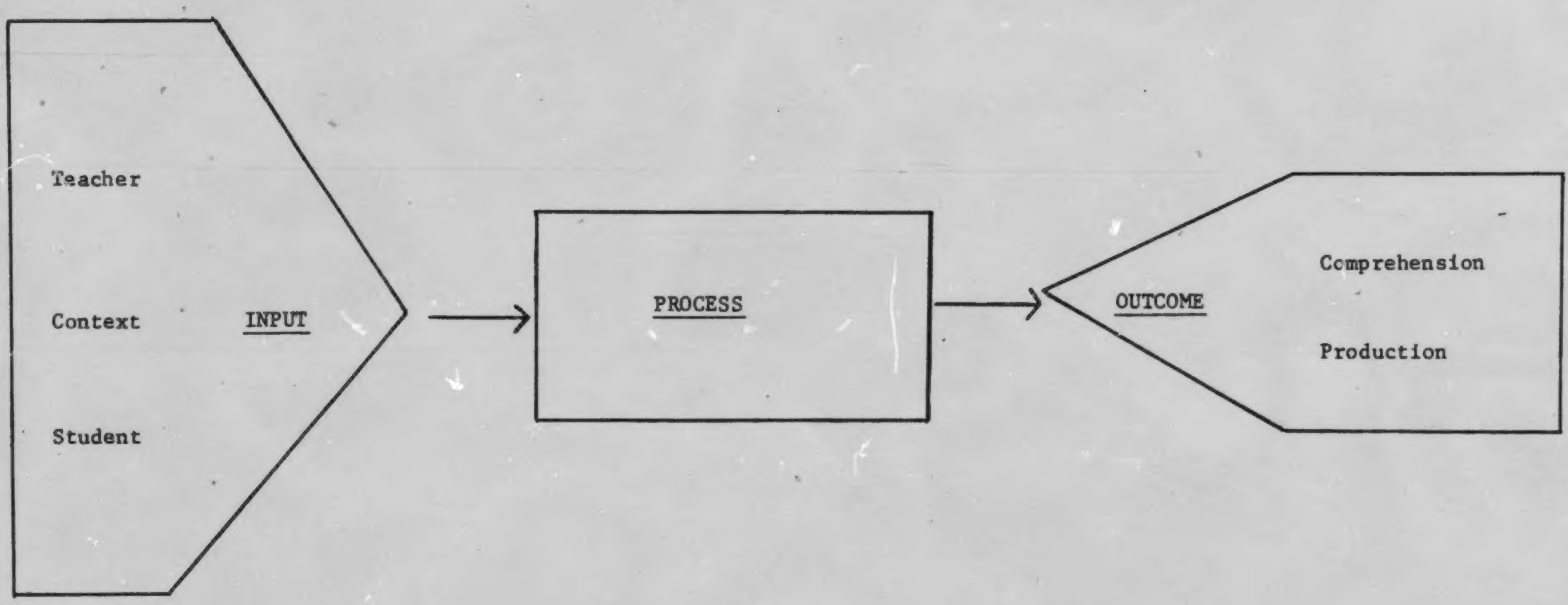
Teacher
Context
Student
INPUT
PROCESS
OUTCOME
Comprehension
Production

Figure II-1. Model of the Teaching/Learning Process

		SKILLS						
		Aural/oral			Written			
		Activity No.	Time	%	Activity No.	Time	%	Total
STRATEGIES	Formal Practice							
	Functional Practice							
	Total:							
	Grand Total:							

Figure II-2. Matrix for Activity Analysis by Skills and Strategies

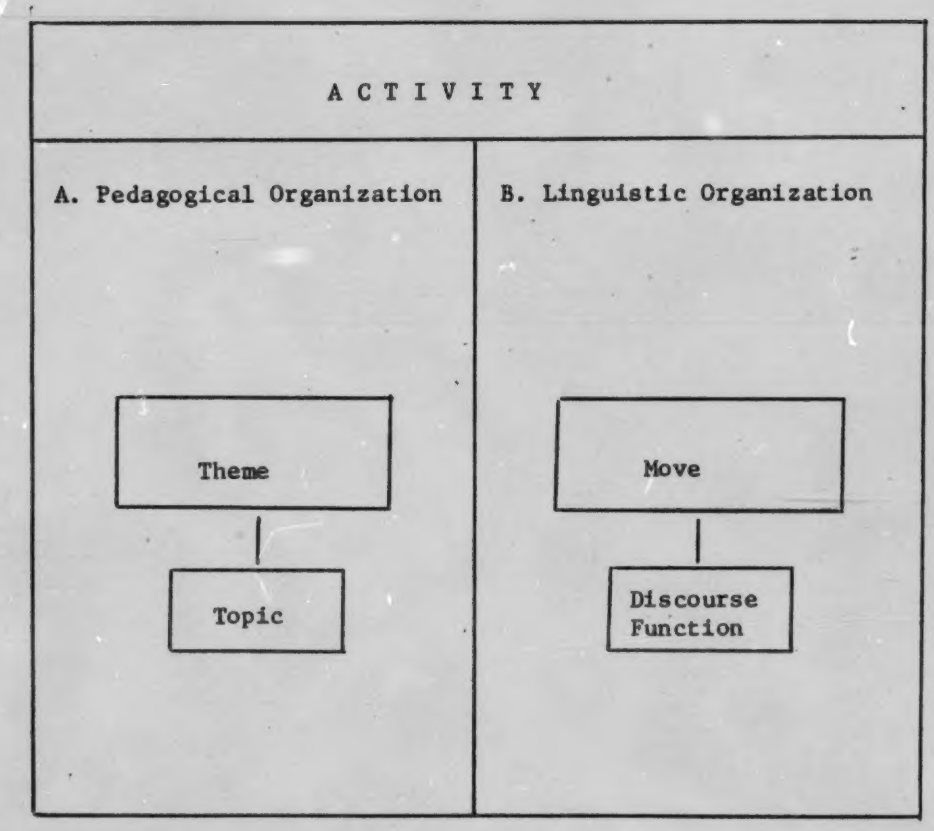
ACTIVITY
A. Pedagogical Organization
B. Linguistic Organization
Theme
Topic
Move
Discourse Function

Figure II-3. Pedagogical and Linguistic Spheres of Organization Within a Teaching Activity

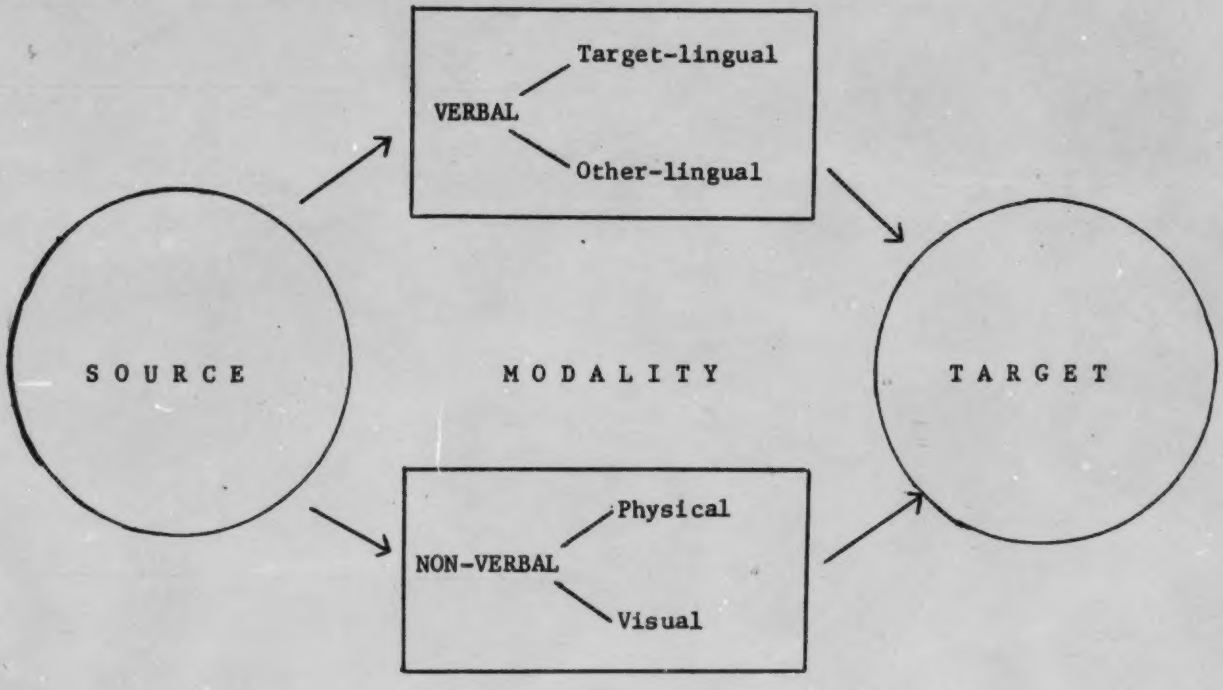
Target-lingual
VERBAL
Other-lingual
SOURCE
MODALITY
TARGET
Physical
NON-VERBAL
Visual

Figure II-4. Source, Target and Modality Aspects of Discourse Functions

Chapter III

A Comparison of Teaching Activities in Two Distinct Language Teaching Settings

Two distinct language teaching settings were chosen for comparison using the LTRS; the regular Core French program and the French Immersion program. Two classes, both at the Grade 6 level, were observed and tape recordings of the lessons were made. The lesson observed in the French Immersion program was a lesson in French Language Arts. The lesson tapes were transcribed into typescript for analysis, first in terms of the activities carried out, and secondly in terms of the linguistic organization of classroom interaction.

Grade 6 - Core Program

The use of the term 'Core' French or 'regular' French refers to the traditional programming of French as a second language in periods of either twenty, thirty or forty minutes per day within the English language school program. The class observed in this study received thirty minutes of French per day, five days per week. The students were in their first year of French language study.

The lesson typescript (Appendix B) was divided into activities according to the two basic features of Skills and Strategies. "Skills" refers to the aural/oral or written language skills emphasized by the activity; "Strategies" refers to the type of language practice, either formal or functional, for which the activity is used. The two basic features and the two sub-categories of each yield a four-cell matrix, as described earlier (page 9).

Four major activity divisions have been identifed for the Core program lesson: 1) Opening remarks; 2) Review of vocabulary and idiomatic expressions; 3) Question-answer sequence; and 4) Alphabet drill. Twelve thematic divisions have been identified within the four activities and are listed below. Topic divisions based on minor divisions of content material are not reported here and will not be dealt with in the present analysis. They have, however, been listed in Appendix B.

Activity No.	Theme	Description
1		OPENING REMARKS
	1.1	Social formalities
2		REVIEW OF VOCABULARY & IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS
	2.1	Calendar date
	2.2	Holiday (Valentine Day)
	2.3	Weather
	2.4	Calendar date
	2.5	Numbers
	2.6	Time
	2.7	Academic subjects
	2.8	Action verbs
	2.9	Negative 'ne...pas'
3		QUESTION-ANSWER SEQUENCE
	3.1	'What do you do at school?'
4		ALPHABET DRILL
	4.1	Alphabet

We can now place these four teaching activities on the four-cell matrix according to the number of minutes and the resultant percentage of total class time devoted to each activity as shown in Figure III-1.

Insert Figure III-1 about here

Grade 6 - French Immersion

The 'French Immersion' program refers to a form of schooling whereby Anglophone children are taught all or part of their school curriculum through the medium of French, their second language. The students observed in this study were in their sixth year of a French Immersion program which had begun as a total immersion experience in Kindergarten and progressed to a partial immersion situation at the Grade 6 level, that is, 50% of their school curriculum is now taught in French and 50% in English.

It was felt that the decrease in the use of French during the school day and the overwhelming importance of English in the general environment was seriously reducing the students' progress in French. A form of 'interlanguage', a non-native form of the language suited particularly to classroom situations, had developed (Selinker et al., 1975). To encourage the students to continue their progress towards a more native-like proficiency in French, the program of French Language Arts was implemented. The class observed in this study was one of the French Language Arts classes.

Divisions into activity and theme were made based on the typescript of the recorded lesson (Appendix B).

Activity No.	Theme	Description
1		OPENING REMARKS
	1.1	Discussion of operetta
	1.2	Discipline
	1.3	Repeat: discussion
	1.4	Administration
	1.5	Discipline
	1.6	Management
	1.7	Repeat: administration
2		CORRECTION OF TEXT
	2.1	Reading of text
	2.2	Correction
	2.3	Discipline
	2.4	Correction
	2.5	Administration
	2.6	Correction
	2.7	Discipline
	2.8	Correction

Activity No.	Theme	Description
	2.9	Discipline
	2.10	Correction
	2.11	Administration
	2.12	Review of entire text
	2.13	Administration
3		CLOSING CONVERSATION
	3.1	Student-initiated discussion of newspaper
	3.2	Discipline
	3.3	Administration
	3.4	Repeat: discussion

The activity distribution by Skills and Strategies is shown in Table III-2.

Insert Table III-2 about here

From the division of the two typescripts into their component parts of activity and theme we note that the structural organization of these two classes is much the same. There is similarity both in the number of major activity divisions and the progression of these activities in the teaching of the lesson. The Core class has been divided into 4 activities while the Immersion class has been divided into 3.

Both classes begin with a Functional, Aural/oral activity, which we have called 'Opening Remarks'. However, in the Core class this activity consists of a very brief .5 minute segment, or only 1.6% of total class time and consists merely of a statement of the formality 'Bonjour' by the teacher and a repetition by the class in unison. In the Immersion class, 12 minutes, or 24% of total class time is devoted to this introductory activity.

The second activity is the major teaching segment in both classes. Moreover, in both classes this activity is classified on the parameter Strategy as Formal Practice, indicating formal attention to second language (L2) forms and structures. The Core class devotes 66.7% of class time to this major activity, 'Review of Vocabulary and Idiomatic Expressions'. The Immersion class devotes 60% of its class time to this second activity, 'Correction of Text'.

On the activity parameter of Skills, however, the two classes differ. Whereas the Core class continues in a totally aural/oral mode, the Immersion class focuses on the written form of the L2. These two activities exemplify one of the most obvious differences between the teaching which occurs in the two classes. Since the Core program students are beginners in French language study, their knowledge of vocabulary and syntax is necessarily limited. For this reason the teacher concentrates almost exclusively on the oral presentation and practice of vocabulary and idioms and makes little attempt to encourage the students to use known vocabulary and structures freely. The Immersion class students on the other hand already possess a large corpus of vocabulary items, certainly in relation to the classroom environment, and their attention is now being drawn to the written representation of those known vocabulary items and L2 structures.

The third activity in both classes is a Functional, Aural/oral activity. It must be pointed out, however, that in the Core class, although a certain amount of freedom of choice in the ideas presented and the form in which they are presented allows us to classify the activity as Functional Practice, it remains completely teacher-directed and repetition-oriented. It consists of a brief question-answer series which occupies 5 minutes, or 16.7% of class time. In the Immersion class, this activity, 'Closing Conversation', is also brief, occupying 8 minutes, or 16% of total class time. However, in this class the activity becomes a truly functional exchange with a great deal of freedom in the student participation: the topic of conversation is introduced by a student; the conversation progresses largely through student questions and responses; there is a great deal of student-student interaction on the topic; and most important, the topic is one that holds real interest for the students, the upcoming preparation of a school newspaper in French.

In the Core class the teacher initiates a final Formal, Aural/oral activity, a rhythmic alphabet drill, to occupy the last few minutes of class time. In the Immersion class the teacher has no need to structure a fourth activity since the third functional activity, the closing conversation, continues with enthusiastic participation until the end of class time.

Insert Table III-3 about here

In general then, as shown in Table III-3, the organization of the activities within these two classes along the two parameters of Skills and Strategies is consistent with the different priorities applicable to each class. The top priority for the Core class, vocabulary acquisition, is accomplished through a totally oral experience in the classroom. The teacher's rapid progression from one theme to another as well as the use of fast-paced questioning and response techniques allows the students to hear a maximum amount of spoken language and to repeat vocabulary items orally as often as possible within the confines of a thirty-minute class period. A secondary priority, correct pronunciation, is encouraged by frequent repetition both by individual students and by the class in unison. The high percentage of total class time devoted to the Formal Practice Strategy, 83.5%, underlines the degree of attention paid to formal study of language elements, in this case vocabulary acquisition and correct pronunciation.

The Core French teacher also indicated the importance of a third priority, the students' enjoyment of their French class. The teacher attempts to meet this priority and avoid boredom by a continual and rapid change of theme, by the use of a variety of visual materials, as well as the use of rhythmic imitative drills such as the oral alphabet drill at the end of the period. It may be worthwhile to point out, however, that even at the earliest stages of language learning, a need to use the language for real communication provides an undeniable impetus to students' language performance and to their positive attitudes in relation to the language (Savignon, 1972). The use of amusing visual aids, rapid thematic progression and rhythmic drills and games may still prove insufficient to foster a true appreciation and enjoyment of French in the students.

One further point of contrast between these two classes becomes evident when we examine the theme divisions within the activities. In the Immersion class there are 6 instances where 'Discipline' becomes the major focus of attention while in the Core class this does not occur at all. This difference may be partly explainable by the fact that there is far greater freedom of interaction generally in the Immersion class, ending occasionally in undue noise and disruption. The interaction tends to be more varied: students question the teacher, often several at a time; students often speak among themselves; students are more active, i.e., distributing and collection workbooks for written exercises.

The uninhibited behaviour of the Immersion students also reflects a rapport which exists between teacher and students which is not duplicated in the Core French classroom. There are two probable reasons for this difference: first, the more sophisticated language level of the Immersion students gives them a degree of comfort and flexibility in language use which Core students lack; and secondly, the role of the Immersion teacher, as full-time classroom teacher, allows him to reach a degree of familiarity with his students that is impossible for the itinerant Core French teacher to attain. The Immersion teacher knows his students as individuals. He is familiar with their background, personality, academic strengths and weaknesses, extra-curricular interests, sports abilities, and so forth. This knowledge allows him to relate to each student personally on real topics of interest in their lives. The itinerant Core French teacher who merely replaces the regular classroom teacher for thirty minutes a day cannot meet the students on the same level. Moreover, the Core French teacher speaks a new and strange language in which communication is strictly limited to brief exchanges, mainly the recollection of one-word items, with little or no intellectual or personal involvement on either side.

Table III-1

Activity analysis by skills and strategies - grade 6 core

	AURAL/ORAL			WRITTEN			
	Activity No.	Time	%	Activity No.	Time	%	Total
FORMAL PRACTICE	2	20 min.	66.7				81.7%
	4	4.5	15.0				
FUNCTIONAL PRACTICE	1	0.5	1.6				18.3%
	3	5.0	16.7				
Total		30 min.	100%			0%	

Table III-2

Activity analysis by skills and strategies - grade 6 immersion

	AURAL/ORAL			WRITTEN			
	Activity No.	Time	%	Activity No.	Time	%	Total
FORMAL PRACTICE				2	30 min.	60.0	60.0%
FUNCTIONAL PRACTICE	1	12 min.	24.0				40.0%
	3	8 min.	16.0				
Total:		20 min.	40%		30 min.	60%	
Grand Total:		50 min.	100%				

Table III-3

Comparison of core and immersion class activities
by skills and strategies

	Formal Practice	Functional Practice	Aural/Oral	Written
CORE	83.5%	16.5%	100%	0%
IMMERSION	60 %	40 %	40%	60%

Chapter IV

A Comparison of Verbal Interaction in Two Distinct Language Teaching Settings

To further explore the differences between our sample Core French and Immersion classes, an analysis of verbal interactions occurring in the class was performed. The data were collected by means of the Language Teaching Record Scheme (LTRS) and examined in terms of the 24 discourse functions and the four communicative move types discussed earlier. The three additional aspects of discourse functions, namely, the Source of the message, the Target and the Modality by which the message is transmitted, were also documented.

For both the Grade 6 Core class and the Grade 6 Immersion class a full lesson period was observed, taperecorded, and transcribed. Each discourse function occurring in the interaction was then coded onto a coding sheet by placing the discourse function symbol in the appropriate move type column. For each individual discourse function, information as to Source, Target and Modality was also coded by appropriate symbols. The sample coding sheets for each class lesson are found in Appendix C.

The data were analysed by performing crosstabulations of the factors Discourse Function, Move, Source, Target, and Modality. The relevant comparisons were discourse function with each of the other factors and the interaction between move and source. The hypotheses were that the discourse functions would honour different distributions and frequencies in each of the classes, that is, they would be differentially paired with each of the other factors, and that move types would display a more flexible relationship with Source for the immersion class than for the core lesson. Thus, whereas the move 'Solicit' may be restricted to the teacher in the core class, it may be employed by students as well in the immersion class. Such differences may have important consequences for the learning process.

Discourse Function Usage

The primary distinction between the use of discourse functions in these two settings is their frequency of occurrence. In the Core classroom setting, 975 discourse functions were recorded within a 30-minute lesson period while in the Immersion classroom setting, only 400 discourse functions were recorded over a longer 50-minute lesson period. The large number of functions in the Core program lesson indicates the fast pace of the interaction taking place. Students experience a rapid fire sequencing of questions and responses which provides maximum exposure to the vocabulary and language forms under study. The teacher encourages each student to produce vocabulary items orally as often as possible by requesting short, quick responses and frequent repetitions.

The effect is often hectic and hurried as a great amount of material is forced within a 30-minute session.

The slower pace of the interaction in the Immersion class is reflected by the smaller number of discourse functions recorded. The slower pace allows students time for reflection before answering and promotes more careful consideration of responses. Each function used in the Immersion class is verbalized in a more elaborate form than in the Core class; thus fewer functions are noted in a longer time period. This is demonstrated for the function 'clarify', used to explain a specific vocabulary item. In the Immersion class the following exchange takes place:

S Qu'est-ce que c'est ça, l'équilibre?

T Ah, tu sais bien ce que c'est. L'équilibre? C'est quand... en ce moment je suis en équilibre, alors là, je ne suis plus en équilibre. "Il a perdu l'équilibre". (accompanied by actions to emphasize meaning.)

In the Core class the following vocabulary clarification occurs:

T Qu'est-ce que c'est 'anniversaire'?

S Birthday.

T Oui.

Another example, using the function 'administrative directive', gives evidence of the same disparity. With this function the teacher introduces the activity which is to follow. In the Immersion and Core classes respectively this function appears as follows:

Immersion:

T Bon. Rapidement meaintenant je vous redistribue les cahiers d'expression écrite. Nous corrigeons un texte ensemble; nous le recopions cette fois, d'accord. Hier nous avons fait très rapidement ce travail, avant de sortir hier soir. On fait la même chose -- on va lire le texte -- vous savez comment on fait maintenant.

Core:

T Ah, nous avons un petit jeu, un jeu 'X et O'. OK.

The Core class teacher restricts language use to a minimal level due to the students' basic level of competence. Sentence structure is simple, functional, without digressions. Questions are brief, frequently followed by a single-word response and exact repetition. The Immersion teacher on the other hand expands, elaborates and digresses using language in a natural and expanded manner. The following interactions exemplify these traits:

Immersion:

T	Pos. Eval'n.	Oui, c'est très bien.
	Disciplinary Directive	Je répète, James, que pour que l'enregistrement soit utile, on évite de faire des bruits par, comme tu es en train d'en faire. Tu n'as pas touché à ton cahier.
	Pos. Eval'n.	Oui, Anne. Anne a absolument raison.
	Comment	Andréa a répété à la dernière phrase qui était copiée au tableau. C'est "soudain le feu est passé au vert" et Andréa a continué en disant "le feu est passé au vert quand le vieux monsieur a lâché le poteau il a --
	Implicit Correction	Ah, c'est pas...
S	Response	Oh--"aussitot qu'il a lâché le poteau"
T	Accept	Oui, c'est ça.

Core:

T	Spec. info.	Qu'est-ce que c'est? Jason. (picture cue)
S	Response	Matin.
T	Explicit Correction	Le matin.
S	Repetition	Le matin.
T	Accept	Oui.
	Spec. Info.	Et ça? Danny. (picture cue)
S	Response	L'après-midi.
T	Accept	Uh huh (nodding).

One further point to account for the frequency difference between the classes is the nature of the two lessons observed. The Immersion class is involved in a written composition lesson which involves a certain amount of reading of text, both before and after correction. Thus, a single function, 'reading', is recorded; however, the actual time spent on that reading may be somewhat greater than the time required for the production of certain other functions.

Patterns of Discourse Function Usage

Let us consider in more detail the relative usage of each discourse function within the Core and Immersion classrooms as shown in Table IV-1.

Insert Table IV-1 about here

1. Informative: a very small percentage occurrence of this function was recorded with the Core class (1.1%); however, only a slightly greater percentage occurrence was recorded with the Immersion class (1.8%). This function was not relied on heavily by teachers in either setting to orient students towards the lesson topic or to lead into lesson material.

2. Administrative directive: this function seldom occurred in the Core class (1.2%). However, in the more flexible progression of the Immersion class, 12.7% of functions were of this type.

3. Disciplinary directive: this function was never uttered in the Core class under observation (0%) but occurred regularly in the Immersion class (4.6%) as the teacher dealt with an exhuberant class.

4. Social formalities: this function was not a common feature of either setting, occurring very briefly in the Core class (0.6%) and not at all in the Immersion class. The social contacts and comments which occurred in the Immersion setting occurred in the form of general questioning rather than as standardized social formulae.

5. Specific information: this was the function relied on most heavily by the Core class teacher for the advancement of the lesson (17.7%). The Immersion teacher relied on specific questioning to a lesser extent, only 10.9% of the functions being of this type.

6. General information: the situation was reversed here in relation to the previous function. While the Core class exhibited only 2.9% general questioning, the Immersion class exhibited 6.1%. The increased amount of general or open-ended questioning occurring in the Immersion setting indicates a somewhat greater opportunity for individual student contributions to the interaction and creative language use.

7. Modelling: this function whereby a linguistic model is provided for imitation by students, occurred only in the Core classroom and to a moderately high degree (3.6%) in relation to most other discourse functions. This technique may be necessary in the early stages of language learning. The classroom teacher is usually the sole model of native-like proficiency in the L2 available to the students and therefore must encourage the development of accurate pronunciation and intonation patterns in the students by modelling.

8. Reading: due to the preliminary stage of language learning of the Grade 6 Core class, reading was not an integral part of their language learning program. The aural/oral course concentrates heavily on listening and speaking skills with written L2 forms introduced much later in the program. In the Immersion class, however, 8.6% of functions have been coded as 'reading'. In this class, a written

composition was being corrected and students' attention was being directed to written L2 forms. Each sentence was read aloud both before and after correction.

9. Clue: both classes exhibited minimal use of this function (0.8%). In the Core class, clues to aid responses were generally presented in visual form via flashcards, clock face, or situational pictures. Since the students' level of vocabulary comprehension is still very limited, it is reasonable that visual stimuli or clues are more effective than oral clues. In the Immersion class, neither grammar nor cross-lingual clues were exhibited to any great degree.

10. Clarify: this function was never exhibited in the Core class where questions were formed simply and explicitly, requiring no clarification, rephrasing or explanation. The function was, however, exhibited to a small degree in the Immersion class (2.0%).

11. Verify: again a function almost never experienced in the Core class (0.2%) but exhibited occasionally in the Immersion class (1.5%). Due to the increased complexity of language use and general questioning techniques employed, verification of comprehension was necessary on occasion.

12. Translate: this function seldom occurred in the Core class (1.0%) and never occurred in the Immersion class. Both classes were conducted completely within the framework of the L2 without resorting to comparisons between L1 and L2 via translation.

13. Complete response: In the Core class a high percentage of all functions coded were classified as 'complete response' (18.1%) that is, responses in which the minimum information required by the previous question was provided by the respondent. The Immersion class exhibited a similarly high percentage of complete responses (14.5%).

14. Incomplete response: a greater percentage of incomplete responses was recorded in the Core class than in the Immersion class, 8.2% and 3.8% respectively. This difference probably reflects the difference in proficiency level of the two groups of students. The Core students, beginners in French, may misunderstand a question or simply be unable to formulate an adequate reply to a question. The Immersion students with their greater knowledge of the L2 should have less difficulty in formulating appropriate replies.

15. Repetition: the heavy use of repetition in the Core class was reflected by a high 13.7% of total functions while in the Immersion class it was a low 2.0% of total functions. These figures emphasize the reliance of the Core classroom teacher on pure repetition to promote students' mastery of L2 vocabulary items and idiomatic expressions.

16. Accept: this discourse function is a neutral, non-evaluative form of acceptance, simply a 'oui' or 'bien' following a response without further comment or any affective overtones. It made up 17.6% of total functions in the Core class, and 6.9% of total functions in the Immersion class.

17. Reject: in the case of the reject function, also a neutral or non-evaluative reaction to a response, the usage was similar in the two classes with only slightly higher usage in the Core class than in the Immersion class (2.5% and 1.8% occurrence respectively).

18. Positive evaluation: with respect to this function which indicates praise or comment of a positive nature following a response, both classes were similar in usage with 3.6% and 3.8% occurrence recorded in the Core and Immersion classes respectively.

19. Negative evaluation: not a single instance of this function was recorded in either class. The teachers in both settings thus tended to resort to positive reinforcement and encouragement rather than negative evaluation of a response.

20. Explicit correction: this function indicates that the respondent has been provided with the correct form after having difficulty completing a response. This form of correction was used to a limited degree in both the Core and Immersion classes, 2.2% and 2.5% of total functions respectively.

21. Implicit correction: this function indicates that the respondent is encouraged to self-correct by the questioner who merely localizes the error by repetition of the response with emphasis on the incorrect aspect, for example, without actually giving the correct form of the response. This function was used to a greater extent in the Immersion class than in the Core class, 4.3% and 1.7% of total functions respectively.

22. Comment: this important function refers to the use of any elaboration on a response. It may provide additional information to the response or synthesize previously given information. It was seldom used in the Core class (1.1%), although more frequently in the Immersion class (7.6%). The use of a general function such as this is crucial in the second language learning classroom. It is through the experience of general language use that students gain flexibility in comprehension and production. If classroom language use is restricted to a largely formal pedagogic sequence without the addition of spontaneous exchange of information and flexible patterning of functions, students will remain unaware of their use.

23. Noise: while not strictly a discourse function, this aspect of the classroom interchange proved to be an important one, especially in the Immersion class where it was recorded as 3.3% of total functions.

24. Laughter: this function was recorded in the Immersion class to a small extent (0.5%), and was never recorded in the Core class as an important feature of the interaction.

Questioning Techniques in the Two Settings

In the Core classroom, recall of information questions in which a single correct answer is sought dominates the interaction: 17.7% of all functions recorded request 'specific information'. Moreover, certain questions, when asked in the guise of general questioning, in fact require specific information to be accepted. Having just previously introduced as new vocabulary the phrase "il fait chaud", the teacher asks: "Quel temps fait-il en septembre?" Several responses may logically be appropriate and in this case the student responds: "Il fait froid", a plausible reply, especially in the Canadian context. However, the teacher reacts with a repetition of the answer with rising intonation, a function indicating implicit correction: "En septembre?" She then repeats the question in an attempt to draw the correct or expected response from the student: Quelque fois oui, mais d'habitude quel temps fait-il?" The student then realizes his mistake in thinking it an open question and provides the expected response using the new structure: "Il fait chaud."

In the Immersion classroom the use of general, open-ended questioning techniques is more apparent: 6.1% of total functions as compared to 2.9% recorded in the Core class. Also, the functions of specific and general questioning are more evenly distributed throughout the class, 10.9% and 6.1% respectively, whereas the functions are unevenly distributed in the Core class, 17.7% specific questioning and only 2.9% general questioning.

Relationship between Moves and Discourse Functions

The percentage occurrence of each move type for each of the classes is presented in Table IV-2. While the Initiating move type which provides introductory comments, background on a topic and lead-in remarks of any kind, is almost nonexistent in the Core class, the other three moves are used equally. This balance of Solicit, Respond and React characterizes the entire lesson (see coding sheets in Appendix C). The loss of Initiating moves from the classroom repertoire automatically reduces by 25% the possibility for flexibility and variety in the interaction.

Insert Table IV-2 about here

In the Immersion class we note a consistent distribution of moves across all four move types. The high percentage of Initiating and Reacting moves indicate that a great amount of information above and beyond the level of basic question-answer routines is exhibited in this class. Furthermore, with the interaction spread evenly across all four move types, a greater variety of sequencing is possible.

It has been hypothesized that the occurrence of most discourse functions will be restricted to one single move type and that only a few functions will vary in relation to move type, according to their position in the sequence of the discourse.

The results of the crosstabulation between discourse function and move type does not always support the hypothesis. Again, a variance between the two settings is evident, as shown in Figure IV-3. In the Core setting the hypothesis holds true in that 16 functions are allocated 100% of the time to one move category, while only 5 functions are distributed across move types. (Three functions do not occur in the Core classroom discourse: disciplinary directive, clarify and negative evaluation.)

Insert Table IV-3 about here

In the Immersion setting, however, 12 functions are restricted to a single move type while 8 functions are distributed across the move types and 4 functions do not occur in the discourse (social formality, modelling, translation and negative evaluation). Since barely one half of the total number of functions are fixed in relation to move type, the hypothesis does not hold true for the Immersion setting.

Source of Discourse Functions

The relationship between Source and discourse functions for the two classes is very similar (Table IV-4). In both cases, the teacher is responsible for the majority of discourse functions recorded. Only the single student source differentiates the two classes: there is greater occurrence of this source in the Core than in the Immersion class. All other figures are comparable.

Insert Table IV-4 about here

The interaction between Move type and Source, given in the body of Table IV-4, is more informative. The Core class teacher is responsible for 100% of the Initiating moves recorded. In the Immersion class, while the teacher is still responsible for the great majority of Initiating moves (98.9%), there are, nonetheless, instances of student initiations.

The Core teacher is again responsible for 100% of Soliciting moves recorded, whereas the Immersion teacher shares the Soliciting moves with the students.

Conversely, with respect to Responding moves, it is the students in the Core class who claim greatest responsibility, while the Immersion class permits responses by both teacher and students. A more even distribution in the Immersion class credits individual students with 64.3% of Responding moves, a clear majority, but also credits the teacher with a high 22.6% of Responding moves. Moreover, group and class responses are noted in the Immersion class for this move type.

Only in the case of Reacting moves does the disparity between the two settings disappear. While there is a slightly greater occurrence of group and class participation in Reacting moves in the Immersion class than was found for Core, the difference between the two classes is minimal.

Modality of Interaction

A comparison of the medium of communication reveals that both classes rely almost exclusively on the target language for all interaction. In the Immersion class the interaction occurs 100% in the target language, i.e., French; in the Core class the interaction occurs 99.9% in the target language and only 0.1% in the native language. In this class in order to ensure the students' comprehension of the oral drill to follow, on one occasion the teacher requests an English translation: "Qu'est-ce que c'est 'anniversaire'?" to which the students reply: "Birthday".

A consideration of the discourse functions in Table IV-5 associated with the Non-verbal Modality, however, reveals disparity between the two classes. While in the Core class 11 functions are associated with the Non-verbal Modality, in the Immersion class the number is only 5. Moreover, when we compare the occurrence of the subordinate media, physical or visual we note that in the Core class the visual medium predominates while in the Immersion class the physical medium is evident to a greater extent. In the Core class, visual stimuli occur in conjunction with the following functions: informative, directive, specific information, modelling, reading and incomplete response. Thus the teacher relies heavily on visual aids when presenting information and eliciting vocabulary production from students.

Insert Table IV-5 about here

In the Immersion class the major role of the visual medium is in the use of written text. The uncorrected text is read from the blackboard and then replaced by the corrected version. Although this visual medium occurs with only one function, i.e., reading, this function accounts for 8.6% of total functions and is therefore a major aspect of the lesson.

The physical medium of the Non-verbal Modality occurs in the Core class with the functions 'response', 'repetition' and 'accept' as well as the functions 'noise' and 'laughter'. The occurrence of the physical medium with the function 'complete response' reflects the use of stamping feet and clapping hands as the teacher leads the students in the alphabet drill which ends the lesson. Used in conjunction with the function 'repetition', it indicates the teacher's consistent technique of pointing to a respondent without calling the student by name. Used in conjunction with the function 'accept', it indicates that a nod of the head has been used to convey the acceptance of an answer rather than an oral form of reaction.

4

In the Immersion class the physical medium occurs in conjunction with the functions 'disciplinary directive' and 'clarify'. Thus gestures are shown to be used when disciplining students, i.e., pointing to the offending student rather than calling him by name, or tapping a ruler against the desk for emphasis. Gestures were also used in this class to accompany a clarification of the phrase "en équilibre"; rather than giving the students a native-language equivalent for the term, the teacher acted out physically the concepts of balance and imbalance.

Concluding Remarks

It is evident from the results described above that significant differences do exist in the verbal interaction of the two classes observed. Students in each of these two settings in fact experience a very different language environment.

In comparing the frequency of occurrence of the individual discourse functions we note that certain functions relied on in the Core classroom, such as 'modelling' and 'repetition', are not a common feature of the Immersion setting, whereas other functions, such as 'comment', occur more frequently in the Immersion than the Core classroom. Moreover, even in cases where the same discourse function occurs in both settings, the function is often actualized in a much expanded verbal form in the Immersion class as compared to the Core. The more natural language input provided by the expanded discourse functions may be reflected in the students' increased awareness of natural language functions and their increased ability to use such functions in their own L2 performance. It may be that by restricting language use at the beginners' level of study to match the students' basic level of proficiency, we are also restricting their progress to a more advanced level of language use.

The functions most commonly employed in the Core class were those based on established patterns of speech, i.e., 'modelling' followed by 'repetition', or 'specific information' followed by 'response' (complete or incomplete), followed by 'accept'. Core French teachers should be encouraged to ensure that modelling - repetition functions are not used to excess at the expense of students' personal, creative responses in the L2. The Immersion class on the other hand experienced more of those functions with varied and flexible verbal interpretations, 'general information', 'comment' and 'clarify'. In particular, the use of general, open-ended questioning techniques was more common in the Immersion than the Core class. The greater occurrence of general questioning may indicate that the teacher is interested in many possible explanations or answers rather than a single correct answer. Such a technique may encourage more imaginative thinking and flexible language use than the recall-of-information type responses associated with the Core class.

In the Immersion class the substantial use of discourse functions which establish classroom procedure and discipline add to the climate of natural, free-flowing language use. Administrative directives and disciplinary directives seldom occurred in the Core class where the pattern of the lesson and its progression appeared to be firmly established and were closely followed by both teacher and students. The greater occurrence of these functions in the Immersion class indicates that the teacher may have a greater need to structure and organize verbal and non-verbal behaviours on a daily basis. These functions exercise a truly communicative role in the classroom by directing actual classroom behaviours rather than focusing on the presentation of content material. Thus although indicating disruptive behaviour, the high percentage occurrence of these 'functional' discourse functions may at the same time aid in developing the students' level of communicative competence.

The interaction between discourse function and move type is again informative. In the Core class where only 3 out of 4 move types occur, the possibility for variety in the interaction is greatly reduced. A far greater variety in the sequencing of move types is evidenced by the Immersion class where all 4 move types occur in a more equal distribution. Thus the interaction tends to be more varied in this class where spontaneous contributions are allowed to mould the sequence of the interaction rather than be confined within a strictly standardized pattern.

Furthermore, the fact that a majority of functions in the Core setting were restricted to one move type category (16 out of 24), whereas only half (12 out of 24) were similarly restricted in the Immersion setting, provides further evidence of the more varied linguistic environment experienced in the Immersion setting.

Again, the interaction between Source and Move type yields an interesting comparison between the two settings. The Core classroom displayed a high degree of teacher direction in that the teacher had complete control over three out of four move types in the interaction--Initiating, Soliciting and Reacting. The extremely low degree of student participation in other than Responding moves gives evidence not only of their low level of proficiency but also of a high degree of standardization of roles in the classroom. It is the teacher's role in this situation to inform, to question and to react while it is the students' role merely to respond. In the Immersion class where a more even distribution between Source and Move type was observed, it is evident that students, as individuals and as a group, take greater responsibility for the direction of the lesson and the nature and pattern of verbal interaction.

An interesting aspect of the interaction in the Immersion class is that students are encouraged to question the work of other students. The importance of pupil-pupil interaction in the learning process within the classroom is of much interest. Many educators (Goodlad, 1970) consider that learning through peer interaction may have more permanent, lasting effects than learning which takes place through the traditional teacher-as-director, student-as-respondent roles.

In the case of the aspect Modality, there is disparity between the two settings only for the Non-Verbal Modality. Although in both classes the visual medium is employed, it occurs with greater frequency in the Core classroom where the teacher relies heavily on visual aids when presenting new vocabulary, eliciting vocabulary production and reinforcing modelling techniques. A secondary role of the variety of visual stimuli occurring in the Core class may be simply to provide some amusing pictures to counteract the monotony of the classroom routine. The use of the visual medium in the Immersion class takes the form of written text on the blackboard. This difference points to a major area of contrast between these two classes. Whereas the Core students are beginners in French language study, in the early stages of an aural/oral program without benefit of reading and writing practice, the Immersion students are in their sixth year of French study with reading and writing a major part of their language curriculum.

In order to improve the performance and attitudes of students in Core French programs it may be worthwhile to encourage the use of more natural language functions and patterns of moves and functions, even from the first days of language study. Without the constant example of varied, flexible language use in the classrooms, students themselves may be unable to develop a level of L2 competence which allows them to communicate in situations outside the formal classroom setting. The actual relationship that exists between the classroom language experience and the students' level of mastery of the second language should be investigated in more detail in the future empirical research.

Table IV-1

Percentage of total classroom discourse attributed to each discourse function in core and immersion settings

DISCOURSE FUNCTION	CORE	IMMERSION
1. informative	1.1%	1.8%
2. administrative directive	1.2	12.7
3. disciplinary directive	0	4.6
4. social formality	0.6	0
5. specific information	17.7	10.9
6. general information	2.9	6.1
7. modelling	3.6	0
8. reading	0.1	8.6
9. clue	0.8	0.8
10. clarify	0	2.0
11. verify	0.2	1.5
12. translate	1.0	0
13. complete response	18.1	14.5
14. incomplete response	8.2	3.8
15. repetition	13.7	2.0
16. accept	17.6	6.9
17. reject	2.5	1.8
18. positive evaluation	3.6	3.8
19. negative evaluation	0	0
20. explicit correction	2.2	2.5
21. implicit correction	1.7	4.3
22. comment	1.1	7.6
23. noise	1.1	3.3
24. laughter	0	0.5

Table IV-2

Percentage occurrence of each move type
in core and immersion settings

	Core	Immersion
1. Initiate	4.8%	23.4%
2. Solicit	25.9	21.1
3. Respond	35.2	21.3
4. React	34.1	34.3

Table IV-3

Percentage occurrence of discourse functions by move type in core and immersion settings

Function	Initiate		Solicit		Respond		React	
	C	I	C	I	C	I	C	I
1. in	100	100		2				
2. di	100	98						
3. dd		100						
4. soc	33.3				33.3		33.3	
5. sp			100	100				
6. gen			100	100				
7. mo	62.9						37.1	
8. rd		50	100	20.6		20.6		8.8
9. cu						33.3	100	66.7
10. cl						25		75
11. ve			100	50		16.7		33.3
12. tr			90		10			
13. r					100	98.2		1.8
14. /r					100	100		
15. re			30	62.5	61.7	25	8.3	12.5
16. ac							100	100
17. rj							100	100
18. +1							100	100
19. -1								
20. C1							100	100
21. C2							100	100
22. Co		3.3					100	96.7
23. ~					18.2		81.8	100
24. ha							100	100

Table IV-4

Percentage occurrence of move type by source in core and immersion settings

	Source: 1. Teacher		2. Student		3. Group		4. Class	
	C	I	C	I	C	I	C	I
Move:								
1. Initiate	100	98.9	0	1.1	0	0	0	0
2. Solicit	100	57.8	0	42.2	0	0	0	0
3. Respond	0.6	22.6	89.5	64.3	0	7.1	9.9	6.0
4. React	88.9	83.7	4.5	4.4	0.3	0.7	6.3	11.1
TOTAL:	61.3	68.8	33.0	24.4	0.1	1.8	5.6	5.1

Table IV-4

Percentage occurrence of move type by source in core and immersion settings

	Source: 1. Teacher		2. Student		3. Group		4. Class	
	C	I	C	I	C	I	C	I
Move:								
1. Initiate	100	98.9	0	1.1	0	0	0	0
2. Solicit	100	57.8	0	42.2	0	0	0	0
3. Respond	0.6	22.6	89.5	64.3	0	7.1	9.9	6.0
4. React	88.9	83.7	4.5	4.4	0.3	0.7	6.3	11.1
TOTAL:	61.3	68.8	33.0	24.4	0.1	1.8	5.6	5.1

Table IV-5

Percentage occurrence of physical and visual media within the non-verbal modality in core and immersion settings

		CORE			IMMERSION		
		% Use	Physical	Visual	% Use	Physical	Visual
1.	in	3.3	0	100			
2.	di	3.3	20	80			
3.	dd				2.1	100	0
5.	sp	60.9	0	100			
7.	mo	0.7	0	100			
8.	rd	0.7	0	100	66.6		100
10.	cl				2.1	100	0
13.	r	2.0	66.7	33.3			
14.	/r	1.3	0	100			
15.	re	9.3	92.9	7.1			
16.	ac	5.3	100	0			
23.	ϟ	6.6	100	0	25.0	100	0
24.	ha	6.6	100	0	4.2	100	0
TOTAL:		100.0			100.0		

PART TWO

THE LEARNING STUDY

Chapter V

Towards a Theoretical Model of Second Language Learning

Second language learning is recognized to be an extremely complex enterprise. Languages are learned for different reasons, under different circumstances, by learners of different ages and abilities, and with different outcomes. To create a model which can accommodate all these variables and also account for particular language learning experiences, a delicate balance must be struck between producing a scheme that is sufficiently general to cover all such variations, yet specific enough to provide useful information.

Existing models in the field have tended to polarize on this dimension: the descriptions attempt to either document all facets of the language learning situation that may impinge on the language learning experience (Schumann, 1976; Swain, 1977; Naiman et al, 1978) or address only a limited number of specifiable operations (e.g. Monitor Model, Krashen, 1976). Both types of schemes are essential to our understanding of second language learning; both serve different purposes and are invoked at different stages of inquiry. The extreme placement of these schemes on a general-specific dimension, however, is problematic: the general schemes are actually taxonomies and may be more appropriately called 'descriptions'; the specific schemes, while they are models, explain only a limited range of phenomena. A model, we believe, must be of an intermediate degree of generality such that it has an acceptable range of application but can nonetheless explain specific processes. In other words, to provide a coherent framework for the understanding of second language learning, a model must meet two criteria - first, it must be able to interpret the effects of factors found in taxonomies (descriptions) of second language learning; second, it must be able to accomodate aspects of specific models and explain their relation to each other and to second language learning. The development of such a model was one of the major goals of this project.

The proposed model aims to provide an account of language learning by identifying a range of relevant factors and relating them to the language learning experience thus explaining differential skill development in learners. The model is both descriptive and explanatory in that it incorporates factors suggested by the literature to have relevance for second language learning and describes the processes by which the language is learned under these various conditions. To the extent that it is explanatory, it is also predictive - language learning outcomes may be predicted by considering the state of the conditions represented in the model.

A critical feature of the proposed model is its generality. It does not describe differences between language learners; rather, it describes the way in which humans, given biological, social, and other restrictions, learn a second language. Differences in achievement between individuals are attributed to differences in the efficiency with which the model operates for different people. An understanding of what factors determine that efficiency is an empirical question and motivates much of the research generated from the model (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978b). Differences in various skill development, however, is attributed to the operation of the model and will be examined in that context.

Description of the model

The model may account as well for differences between language learners which may be attributed to individual learner characteristics. These are measures such as language learning aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality, and other variables. It is suggested that these factors determine the efficiency with which the model will operate for particular individuals without changing the nature of that operation in terms of the possible strategies or processes. Thus, an optimal set of individual characteristics may yield greater achievement in second language learning, but the mechanisms for the attainment of that proficiency and the strategies available for its enhancement would be identical for all second language learners, regardless of their competence.

The model, presented in Figure V-1, is organized on three levels--Input, Knowledge, Output. Each of these represents some unique stage in the learning and use of a second language--the language must be experienced or encountered (Input), the information gained must be stored in some form (Knowledge), and subsequently utilized for either comprehension or production of the language (Output).

Insert Figure V-1 about here

Two kinds of lines connect the various cells in the model. The solid lines are "processing lines" and refer to obligatory relationships that hold between aspects of the model. Processing lines necessarily transfer information in the world into the representational system, which in the present model is the Knowledge level, and similarly processes are required to use the information for output or response. The dotted lines indicate optional relationships between the cells of the model. These lines represent "language learning strategies" which are defined as optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language.

Input. The Input level refers to the undifferentiated context in which exposure to the language occurs and is given only the general title in the model of Language Exposure. Within this concept, however, specific experiences could be identified and their particular effects postulated. The Language Classroom, for example, provides a specialized kind of exposure to the language, and the effects of that exposure could be dealt with in the model once the nature of the experience has been described. Similarly, encountering the target language only through books, or through cultural immersion would again provide different experiences. These differences could be documented in terms of their effects on the type of language learned by the particular Language Exposure.

A systematic description of differences in language development attributable to the Input level has current relevance for language pedagogy. The ongoing debate among educators regarding the relative merits of programs such as core or immersion French may be examined through this Input level of the model. The effects on linguistic and communicative competence which follow from specifiable Language Exposure circumstances may be empirically studied.

Knowledge. The Knowledge level assumes that information about a language may be represented in three ways, described here as Other Knowledge, Explicit Linguistic Knowledge, and Implicit Linguistic Knowledge. These are, of course, hypothetical constructs in that they do not attempt to represent in any physiological sense the way in which information is stored in the brain. Rather, they refer to three types of information the learner brings to a language task, and since each is considered to contribute in some unique way to the attainment of language proficiency, they have been distinguished in the model.

The difference between Explicit and Implicit Linguistic Knowledge is defined operationally. Explicit Linguistic Knowledge contains all the conscious facts the learner has about the language and the criterion for admission to this category is the ability to articulate those facts. These may include some grammar rules, some vocabulary items, pronunciation rules, and so on. Implicit Linguistic Knowledge is the intuitive information upon which the language learner operates in order to produce responses (comprehension or production) in the target language. Whatever information is automatic and is used spontaneously in language tasks is represented in Implicit Linguistic Knowledge. Again, the content may include grammar rules, vocabulary, and so on. It is in this sense that a language learner may claim that a sentence "sounds" or "feels" right, although no direct evidence for the correctness of the sentence could be cited.

Three functions are assigned to the Explicit Linguistic Knowledge source. First, it acts as a buffer for new information about the language. For example, new words or vocabulary items which are presented in a classroom, or encountered in any other explicit situation, would at first be represented in Explicit Linguistic Knowledge. After continued use, the information may become automatic and be transferred to Implicit Linguistic Knowledge, but the initial encounter, because of its explicitness, requires that it is represented in Explicit Knowledge.

The second function is to act as the store for information which is always represented explicitly. Even native speakers will find that certain grammar rules or word meanings require some consciousness in order to be used correctly. Native English speakers, for example, sometimes report the need for conscious attention in order to properly differentiate "lie" and "lay". Further Krashen (1976) has argued that some aspects of a second language are unconsciously "acquired" and as such are not consciously known, while others are "learned" and remain in some conscious form. As a rough categorization, he claims that simple rules are learned and complex ones are acquired (Krashen, 1977a). In this scheme, the second language learner would store simple rules in the Explicit Linguistic Knowledge and complex ones in Implicit Linguistic Knowledge.

The third function for the Explicit Linguistic Knowledge source is to act as an "explicit articulatory system". That is, information that is represented in Implicit Linguistic Knowledge may be made conscious, or explicit, in this source. Rules which are used implicitly and operated upon correctly may be generated and the explicit statement of them brought into the Explicit Linguistic Knowledge source if required. For example, a native speaker of French may not be conscious of the rule governing the positioning of the indirect object pronoun although he consistently uses the rule in the formation of sentences. By examining a corpus of sentences, he may notice that this pronoun precedes the auxiliary verb and thus become aware of the constraints which he had implicitly been honoring in his automatic language production. Because he had been successfully using this rule on some intuitive level, the explicit generation of it is simple.

Only one function is ascribed to the Implicit Linguistic Knowledge source. It is a working system containing all the information about the target language necessary for most spontaneous comprehension and production tasks.

It is important to notice that the distinction between the two knowledge sources is defined in terms of function rather than content. Any information may possibly be represented in either source, and certainly different second language learners will vary greatly as a function of the nature and extent of the information found in each. A larger Implicit Linguistic Knowledge source is associated with an ability for greater fluency; a larger Explicit Linguistic Knowledge source is associated with extensive knowledge of formal aspects of the language, but does not necessarily imply an ability to use this information effectively.

Other Knowledge refers to all other information the learner brings to the language task--knowledge of other languages, such as the native language, information about the culture associated with the target language, knowledge of the world, and so on. Some of this information, such as the cultural context associated with particular words or expressions of a target language, cannot strictly be separated from their use. That is, the meaning of a word is sometimes dependent upon particular cultural connotations. Whereas the use of the word in appropriate contexts is implicit, the specific cultural aspects of the meaning and its occasions for use may be articulated explicitly. This auxiliary information would be represented in Other Knowledge. In this way, links are assumed to exist between Other Knowledge and Implicit Linguistic Knowledge. The distinction between Other Knowledge and the two Linguistic Knowledge sources essentially is that linguistic knowledge contains information about the language code while other knowledge contains related, but not specifically linguistic information.

Output. Output, in the model, refers to the product of language comprehension or production. The general terminal point for the output is given by the cell for Response, but two specific types of responses are also identified. All responses can ultimately be classified according to one of these two types, but the general response cell is provided for two reasons. First it simplifies the description by offering a general name to include both the specialized responses.

Second, it provides a means for discussing some of the operations which may occur in either of the response types by indicating where and how these operations proceed.

The two specialized responses have been called Type I and Type II, and the distinction between them is characterized by a differential time element associated with each. Whereas Type I Responses are spontaneous and immediate, Type II Responses are deliberate and occur after a delay, brief as it may be. Different types of language behaviour and different degrees of proficiency may be associated with each type of response. Reading, for example, may be more closely associated with Type II Responses since review of the written material is possible and there are few time constraints, while speaking, with its demands for fluency, may force the production of only Type I Responses. Since it is known that language learners can often correct their own errors under certain conditions, it is inadequate to assess language responses simply in terms of their correctness. The qualitative differences between Type I and Type II Responses may help to explain both why certain errors are committed and why some tasks which rely primarily on Type I Responses, such as speaking are difficult.

Responses of either type may be correct or incorrect, and in the latter case, correction may occur. The dotted line emanating from both types of responses feeds back into the general Response cell and provides an opportunity for the response to be modified or corrected. Once this additional procedure has been applied to the response, it exits from the general Response cell and necessarily becomes a Type II Response, in that a particular amount of time has passed since its initial execution.

Operating processes for language learning

The processes which relate the three levels are Input processes, those relating Input to Knowledge, and Output processes, those relating Knowledge to Output. These processes obtain irrespective of any conscious intervention of the language learner.

The model in Figure V-1 depicts the Input process as feeding into each of the three knowledge sources, but the nature of the language exposure will determine the extent to which each of these knowledge sources are affected. A language classroom in a traditional formal program for example, would probably accentuate the line from Language Exposure to Explicit Linguistic Knowledge. In this setting, formal rules are taught and the subject of greatest concern is the language code itself. An immersion class, however, may have its maximum effects on Implicit Linguistic Knowledge and Other Knowledge. The subject matter dealt with by the exposure to the target language would increase the learner's knowledge of that subject, such as history, geography, and so on, information represented in Other Knowledge. The vehicle for this information is the target language, and this exposure, particularly in communicative situations, increases the implicit knowledge the learner has of the language. Communicative exposure is an important way of improving proficiency by increasing the learner's experience with forms and meanings that can become incorporated into his own use of the language. Since the lesson is not intended to highlight new forms or meanings, these are implicitly "acquired", and may be used to form his own responses in the target language. Similarly, immersion experiences in the target culture would likely have their maximum effect on Implicit Linguistic Knowledge and Other Knowledge. Only when explicit rules or word meanings are sought by reference to dictionaries or by asking native speakers would Explicit Linguistic Knowledge be particularly affected in these immersion conditions.

The Output process describes the way in which language is used for comprehension or production. The assumption is that language use proceeds as a function of Implicit Linguistic Knowledge; language is not generally produced in a manner analogous to checking words in a dictionary and rules in a grammar book as would be the case if Explicit Linguistic Knowledge were the only source of language response. It is only under particular circumstances, which shall be described below as "monitoring", that Explicit Linguistic Knowledge is used for language comprehension or production.

Several features are included in the Output process line. First, the length of the line corresponds to a time dimension. Language behaviour should change under different time constraints, if only in that longer time spans allow for greater accuracy. Second, a feedback loop from both Type I and Type II Responses allows for continual modification or correction of a response. The only restriction is that only one Type I Response may occur; if this has been corrected and fed back into the Output process line, then all subsequent responses must necessarily be Type II. This restriction preserves the status of Type I Responses as spontaneous.

Strategies for facilitating learning

The language learning strategies have been defined as optional methods for exploiting available information to increase the proficiency of second language learning. In this way they are similar to strategies discussed by Stern (1975), Rubin (1975), and others which refer to the conscious enterprises in which the language learner engages. In the present model they operate by bringing relevant knowledge to the language task that has the effect of improving performance. The use of the strategies is at the discretion of the individual language learner.

Four language learning strategies have been identified. The implications of these strategies for achievement in second language learning are discussed at length elsewhere (Bialystok, in press).

The first strategy is a general concept of practice which refers to a language learner's attempts to increase his exposure to the language. More specifically, however, two kinds of practice are described, and the distinction is based on a classification postulated by Stern (1974, 1978) in which language may be considered "formal" or "functional".

Formal language focuses on the language code and refers to information the learner has about the properties of that code. Functional language is the use of the language in communicative situations. In functional language use, it is the meaning of the message that is of primary concern, rather than the systematic features of the code used to represent that meaning.

Within this context, two possibilities exist for formal practice. First, the language learner may increase his explicit knowledge of the code by availing himself of new information about that code. This is represented by the line from Language Exposure to Explicit Linguistic Knowledge. Examples of the use of this strategy would be the language learner who studies from a grammar book in order to complement class lessons or who asks others, such as native speakers, for clarification or information about new grammatical rules, morphemes, pronunciations, and so on. Since this is a strategy for increasing competence, only those things that the learner does optionally and in addition to any formal training he receives qualify as instances of this type of formal practice.

The second means of employing formal practice is to operate on information already in Explicit Knowledge for the purpose of automatising it and transferring it to Implicit Knowledge. This may be accomplished by the use of language drills and exercises which attempt to familiarize the learner with information he already has learned so that it may be used easily. The purpose of the language learning enterprise, according to the present model, is to increase as much as possible the information in Implicit Knowledge, since language fluency operates as a function of this information. The type of formal practice described here addresses itself to this question by allowing information to move from Explicit Linguistic Knowledge to the operating store in Implicit Linguistic Knowledge.

Functional practice refers to increased exposure to the language for communication. It may comprise going to movies, talking with native speakers, reading books, activities in which the meaning of the language is primary. The model shows functional practice to operate by means of a line from Language Exposure to Implicit Linguistic Knowledge. The language learner samples greater amounts of the language in various settings (Language Exposure), but since the purpose of these encounters is communicative and not formal, the effects on Explicit Linguistic Knowledge are minimal.

The relationship shown by functional practising which connects Language Exposure to Implicit Linguistic Knowledge is similar to the process postulated by Krashen (1976) called language "acquisition" as opposed to language "learning". The language is internalized through communicative exposure rather than through systematic presentation of the system. The functional practice strategy in the present model reflects the extent to which a second language learner will deliberately arrange for such exposure to occur so that language acquisition may proceed.

The last two strategies are monitoring and inferencing. These strategies are in some ways complementary in that monitoring is essentially a production strategy while inferencing may be considered its comprehension counterpart. Further, monitoring is characterized more as a formal strategy and inferencing is more appropriate for functional language.

The concept of monitoring is similar to mechanisms postulated by Krashen for "Monitor Theory" (1977b). In his scheme, conscious knowledge of the language may be used to examine and modify or correct linguistic output. Similarly, the monitoring strategy operates by bringing information from Explicit Linguistic Knowledge to the language task for the purpose of examining, or correcting the response. Since time is required for this conscious intervention of knowledge, monitoring can only enter the Output process line after a particular delay has occurred and consequently can have an effect only on Type II Responses. The monitoring line is shown on the model as connecting Explicit Linguistic Knowledge with the Response.

Monitoring is maximally effective for shaping up the formal aspects of productive responses, that is, it is primarily a formal production strategy. It may, however, be used as well to bring explicit knowledge of word meanings and structures to a comprehension task to improve the responses (which, for comprehension, is simply understanding the message) and hence operate as a formal comprehension strategy. Similarly, monitoring may be used by bringing Other Knowledge into the production task to assist in the representation of particular meanings. This use of monitoring actually requires two steps involving inferencing as well and will be examined in greater detail below. Essentially, however, monitoring is a formal strategy in that it works by exploiting formal information about the language which is represented in Explicit Linguistic Knowledge for the purpose of improving Type II Responses, especially those concerned with production of the language.

Inferencing is a strategy whereby a language learner may arrive at particular linguistic information which was previously unknown. It has been argued by Carton (1971) that inferencing is an effective way to increase comprehension of linguistic material. He outlines three types of inferencing--inter-lingual, intra-lingual, and extra-lingual, each of which describes a situation in which some information is used to generate an explicit linguistic hypothesis about a previously unknown meaning or form in a second language.

In the present model, inferencing is represented by the exploitation of information from several possible sources to arrive at some explicit information about the second language. Thus the inferencing lines in the model take information from one of the sources and terminate in Explicit Linguistic Knowledge where the new insight is represented.

Three sources for this information are identified in the model. The first is the use of Other Knowledge. Inferencing of this type would make use of the language learner's knowledge of the subject matter, cues in the environment, gestures, knowledge of other languages and so on. For example, an unknown word may be similar to a known word in the learner's native language, and the comparison would allow the language learner to infer the meaning of the new word. Similarly, knowledge of the subject discussed would enable the learner to make a reasonable guess about the possible meaning of unknown items.

Information implicitly known about the language may also be brought to consciousness during inferencing. This is represented by the inferencing line from Implicit to Explicit Linguistic Knowledge. Although a particular rule could not have been articulated, it can nonetheless provide the means for deriving new meanings which can be consciously known and represented in Explicit Knowledge. For example, while students of English may be unaware that adverbs end in "ly", they may implicitly use this information to infer that some previously unknown word is an adverb and hence arrive at some reasonable estimate of the word meaning.

The context of the passage or message itself may also be used to infer the meanings of unknown words or forms. The understanding the learner has of the passage is represented by the Response cell, and so the information in this cell may similarly be brought into consciousness to arrive at some explicit understanding of difficult material.

The characterization of inferencing in this model makes it primarily a comprehension strategy. It is used when the purpose of the task is to derive meaning from language or to understand linguistic forms. The outcome of employing the strategy is that new information is now represented in Explicit Knowledge, increasing that source.

The strategy may also be used in conjunction with monitoring for production tasks. This operation would be primarily beneficial for functional tasks but could be used for formal ones as well. When a morpheme or structure is required by the speaker that is not available in his Implicit or Explicit Knowledge, he may make an inference based perhaps on his knowledge of another language (Other Knowledge) to arrive at a new item in the second language. This item, the product of inferencing, would be represented in Explicit Linguistic Knowledge. As a result, it may be subsequently used to monitor a production response by taking this information down to the Output process line into the Response cell. In this way, Explicit Knowledge was increased by inferencing and the information was used to monitor a response.

An investigation of the effectiveness and role of inferencing for various second language tasks is currently in progress. In one study, the ability of second language learners to form inferences from the various sources for a reading comprehension task were examined. The results indicated the relative effectiveness of specific kinds of inferences for particular criterion tasks (Bialystok, submitted). In another study, language learners are examined for their willingness or ability to invoke various kinds of inferences on a communicative task. Their use of particular inferences is related to their level of study and general tendency to use the inferencing strategy (Fröhlich & Bialystok, in preparation).

One additional mechanism in the model may qualify as a strategy but shall not be strictly considered as such. That is the possibility presented after a response to correct that response and return to the Output process line. This is in some way a representation of a correction strategy, but the concept shall not be pursued at present.

Applications of the model

The model may be used to explain both individual variations in achievement as well as differences in skill development for second language learners. Individual differences may be attributed to the extent to which various language learners use the learning strategies. If information presented in formal situations and stored in Explicit Linguistic Knowledge is not practised, there is no benefit to the Implicit Linguistic Knowledge from which all responses emanate. More monitoring would be required if the information has remained in Explicit Linguistic Knowledge, and in the case of communicative tasks, such over-use is not necessarily desirable. Other ability differences between individuals may determine the ease with which these processes function, the amount of information the particular learner is able to extract from a given situation, the extent to which the learner may operate on available information, and so on.

Differences between skill development may be explained by the difference in the operations associated with various tasks. Tasks which permit the possibility of monitoring, such as writing, may be easier than tasks for which the strategy may not be effectively employed, such as speaking. Similarly, tasks which require exclusive use of Type I Responses may be more difficult than tasks which allow for greater use of Type II.

The model provides a means of describing some processes that may occur during second language learning. It can be used to establish an empirical framework in which to test the validity of the relationships postulated in the model. Further, the model is useful as well for interpreting exisiting research by determining which aspects of the model are involved in various research approaches. In this way, evidence which may have appeared contradictory may be found to be addressing different questions or dealing with different aspects of the general model. For example, the relative importance of factors such as aptitude and attitude in second language learning may be found not to be opposing at all but relating instead to different Knowledge Sources or processes. Second, the model may be used to suggest new directions for research. One such study examining the relationship between Explicit and Implicit Knowledge is reported in the following chapter.

Finally, tentative pedagogical implications may be derived from an examination of the model. The need to teach certain learning strategies and to provide particular kinds of language exposure are suggested by the model.

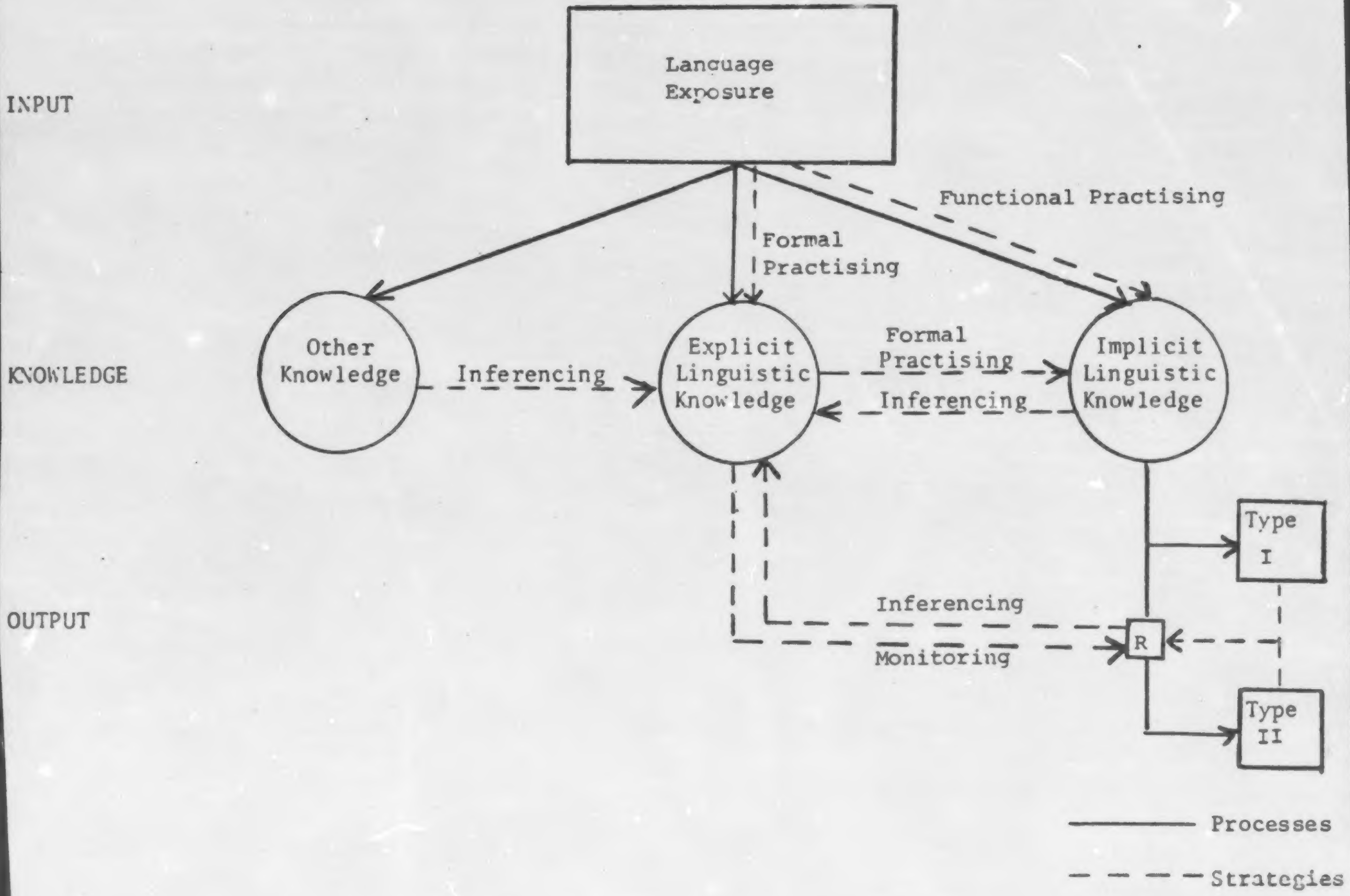
INPUT
KNOWLEDGE
OUTPUT
Language Exposure
Functional Practising
Formal Practising
Other Knowledge
Inferencing
Explicit Linguistic Knowledge
Formal Practising
Inferencing
Implicit Linguistic Knowledge
Type I
Inferencing
R
Monitoring
Type II
Processes
Strategies

Figure V-1. Model of Second Language Learning

Chapter VI

Knowledge Sources in Judgements of Second Language Grammaticality

The proficient use of a language, either native or non-native, depends on a complex interplay of information that is either explicitly consulted or intuitively based. Language training programs primarily seek to enhance the former; students are provided with information relating to the formalized structure of the language and are to a lesser extent encouraged to rely on intuition. Yet, it is possible that some language tasks would benefit significantly from the speaker's intuitions about the language. The problem for the researcher is to identify those language tasks which could be accommodated by an intuitive or an implicit knowledge of the language and those which require the intervention of a set of formalized articulated rules.

In our model of second language learning (Chapter V), a theoretical distinction is made between information about the language which is represented in 'explicit knowledge' on the one hand and 'implicit knowledge' on the other. The assignment of information to either of these sources depends neither on the content nor on the method of instruction; information relating to phonology, syntax, semantics, and so on could appear in either and information learned through a textbook or through a conversation is similarly unbiased for its representation. The distinction, rather, depends on the ability of the learner to articulate or consciously act upon the governing rule. Those rules which can be consciously entertained by the learner are stored in 'explicit knowledge'; those rules which are honoured without attention to the rule or even an ability to state it are stored in 'implicit knowledge'. This distinction is intended to capture the difference between language which is deliberately constructed (explicit knowledge) and that which is automatically produced (implicit knowledge).

If this theoretical distinction between explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge is valid, then it should be possible to identify particular types of language responses or types of language tasks that are differentially reliant on each of these sources. A description of language tasks in terms of these conceptual sources would both validate the theoretical claim for their distinction and point as well to pedagogical implications for formal language instruction. A more precise understanding of the occasions for explicit intervention in second language production would clarify the role of formal instruction and possibly suggest aspects of content to maximize its benefits.

The description of explicit linguistic knowledge in the model allows for extreme variability between language learners in terms of the content of that source. Thus, a simple prescription cannot predict the information that would be in explicit knowledge for a particular learner. Rather, general statements regarding types of language tasks would more likely capture the difference between those language tasks which could be solved from implicit knowledge and those which would additionally require information from explicit linguistic knowledge.

Three factors which may determine the content of explicit knowledge for an individual language learner are age of the learner, level of study in the target language, and the language background of the individual learner. Variation in the content of explicit knowledge and its role in certain tasks should vary as a function of these factors. Younger learners may treat a second language more similarly to a first language than would older learners. Without an acute sense of grammatical correctness and a need to be structurally exact, younger learners may rely more on intuition and may be less deterred by the prospect of error than would older, schooled learners. A more advanced level of study in the target language may mean that more of the information about the language has become automatic and hence place a larger proportion of the language under implicit control. Finally, language learners who have achieved proficiency in a number of languages may benefit both by a greater facility with language in general as well as a greater source of information upon which to base linguistic inferences, such as cognates and structural similarity between languages.

Despite the predicted individual variability in the relation between implicit and explicit knowledge, it should nonetheless be possible to determine the general conditions for their interaction. Situational constraints, such as those occurring during conversation with a native speaker, for example, would likely bias the language learner towards concern with fluency as opposed to accuracy. Consequently, the language production would be predominantly derived from implicit linguistic knowledge, since explicit referral would produce delays that would impede the conversational interaction. Similarly, a language learner writing a letter in the target language would more likely consult both his explicit linguistic knowledge and a variety of official sources, such as a dictionary, to assure the accuracy and hence the interpretability of his product. Between these extremes, however, what other factors may prescribe in some general way the occasions for the use of explicit linguistic knowledge?

The possibility of producing a general description of such factors was tested in the present study by examining three aspects of a language task which may contribute to the invocation of explicit knowledge. A language task was considered in terms of the amount of formal detail required, the specific linguistic structure contained in the response, and the length of time allowed to respond.

Language tasks which focus on grammatical detail may bias learners to consult explicit knowledge for two reasons. First, despite the possibility that any one of the structural features may be stored in implicit knowledge, the co-ordination of greater amounts of detailed information may require the intervention of explicit knowledge. For example, a learner of French may know the rule for the formation of the passé composé in which he selects the auxiliary verb and past participle and also know the rule for the formation and placement of the object pronoun. Combining these two rules and understanding where the object pronoun belongs in relation to the two-part verb may, however, be problematic. Second, the forum in which tasks requiring grammatical detail generally occur is in the formal classroom, and the usual emphasis on correctness may undermine the learner's willingness to commit intuitional errors caused by assigning the task solely to his implicit knowledge. Hence the hypothesis concerning the amount of detail required by a language task is that those tasks which are based on greater detail or a greater amount of information should induce the learner to supplement his implicit response with information from explicit linguistic knowledge.

Specific linguistic structures may affect as well the general occasions for the implementation of explicit linguistic knowledge. It may be that certain structural rules are not easily placed under implicit control, and their correct use requires conscious intervention. Krashen (1977a)has noted that grammatical rules may be described as 'easy' or 'hard', and that this distinction may be reflected as well in the way in which the rule is assimilated. Easy rules, he suggests, may be learned, while hard rules must be acquired. Information which is consciously learned is generally represented in our model in explicit linguistic knowledge, and so the use of these rules may also require the use of explicit knowledge in the formation of the response.

The final element considered in the present analysis is a differential time factor associated with different types of language tasks. A primary distinction between having a conversation and writing a letter, for example, is that the conversation places time constraints on the learner that are not present when attempting to write a letter. Whether or not the learner chooses to consult explicit knowledge, time may prohibit him from doing so in some situations. Similarly, Krashen (1976) argues that the "Monitor" in his model can operate only when conditions of time permit. Thus the same language task under different response time conditions may be solved through a different interaction of explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge. A greater length of response time may, in fact, encourage cautious learners to consult explicit knowledge even for cases in which it would not normally be required to do so. The hypothesis, then, is that a greater response time will allow language learners to exploit explicit knowledge for information required by some responses and possibly to increase the domain of responses solved by explicit knowledge through an over-reliance on that source.

A summary of the above factors postulated to affect the interaction between implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge in second language tasks yields two sets of three factors each. The first set, which may be called 'learner-related variables', includes the level of study of the learner in the target language, the age of the language learner, and the particular language history of the learner, especially his competence with other languages. The second set of factors, or the 'task-related variables', includes the level of detail and/or amount of information required by the task, the specific linguistic structures or aspects of the language being focussed upon, and a situational variant, namely the length of time permitted for the response. The purpose of the present study was to test the role of all of the above factors in the invocation of explicit linguistic knowledge on a language task by a group of second language learners. The questions addressed by the study are as follows:

1. Which language tasks require the intervention of explicit

linguistic knowledge for their solution?

2. Which language tasks may be solved exclusively through implicit linguistic knowledge?

3. Are the answers to 1 and 2 different for different types of language learners?

The task paradigm adopted for the examination of these questions was one in which second language learners were required to make grammaticality judgements about sentences heard in the target language. Schachter, Tyson & Diffley (1976) had found this to be a useful means of characterizing the learner's transitional competence in that the intuition scores obtained by this method provided an important complement to the formal performance results of their learners, and they recommended the inclusion of intuitional data in a variety of research enterprises. Thus, unlike more traditional formal tests, the grammaticality judgement task permitted subjects to respond in a more intuitive and undefined manner. Since the present study aimed to describe the interaction between the use of intuition and authority for language learners performing various tasks, the use of a grammaticality judgement task in which intuitional responses were encouraged, seemed appropriate.

Method

Subjects

The subjects for the study were English native speakers who were at three different levels in their study of French as a second language. The first two groups were high school students who were taking French as a credit course in school in a 40-minute per day program. Group 1 consisted of 97 Grade 10 students who were in their fourth year of French study; Group 2, composed of Grade 12 students in their sixth year of study, had 143 subjects; and Group 3, adults learning French in an intensive program designed to train civil servants in French language, consisted of 45 subjects. This last group provides a sample of older learners who were generally at a higher level of achievement than were the Grade 12 students. Thus the factors of age and level are confounded in this group and so the difference among the three groups for the present purpose shall be described on the dimension of level of study.

Instrument

The test used in the study was an adaptation of the Aural Grammar Test used in our previous research (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978a). Two sets of 24 isolated French sentences were composed such that each sentence was 15 syllables long and controlled for syntactic and semantic complexity. Each sentence was read twice on tape by a native speaker of French. Of the total set of sentences, 6 were grammatically correct and the remaining 18 were structured to fill particular classes of grammatical errors. Six sentences contained some error in the adjective, six contained an error in the indirect or direct object pronoun, and six contained an error in the formation of the verb. Within each grammatical form class, two sentences violated each of three governing rules. Hence the 18 incorrect sentences may be assigned to one of three form class categories and one of three rules within each form class. The list of rules used to construct the incorrect sentences appears in Appendix D and the two sets of sentences are listed in Appendix E.

The task was to provide information about the sentence to one of three levels of detail represented in the design by the three experimental conditions. In the first condition, subjects had only to listen to each sentence and indicate if it was correct or if it contained a grammatical error. In the second condition, subjects had to determine as well the part of speech affected by those sentences which they believed to contain an error. In the third condition, subjects were given the list of 9 grammatical rules used in the test construction and were asked to identify the exact rule which was violated by each of the incorrect sentences.

For each of these conditions, subjects heard both sets of sentences but under two different time conditions. For the first set of sentences subjects were required to respond spontaneously by circling the appropriate answer on their score sheet. The time interval between the completion of the repetition of one sentence and the onset of the new sentence was 3 seconds. For the second set of sentences, subjects were allowed 15 seconds between sentences to consider their response. Earlier work with this test had demonstrated that a 15 second interval provided sufficient time to consider and reformulate responses. The assignment of the two sets of sentences to these two time conditions was counterbalanced across the three detail conditions and across the three levels of study.

Design and procedures

The design of the experiment, presented in Table VI-1, contains two learner variables and three task variables. The learner variables are level, comprised of Grade 10, Grade 12, and Civil Service, and language, indicating that the learner speaks English only, or is fluent as well in some other language.

Insert Table VI-1 about here

The subjects were assigned to one of three detail conditions, representing an increasing amount of information required for the response. The Response criteria, the second task factor, were different for each of these three conditions, and the criteria associated with each detail condition are listed in Table VI-2. Finally, all subjects performed the test in two Time conditions; the Spontaneous and the Delay.

Insert Table VI-2 about here

Subjects were tested in their classrooms in one session lasting approximately 30 minutes. The spontaneous condition was presented first and was followed by the remaining set of sentences for the delay condition. All the instructions for the test were on the tape and one practice example preceded each testing session and each new Time condition. Subjects were encouraged to guess if they were unsure of the correct response.

Results

The design of the experiment permits the data to be analysed in terms of both a primary distinction between the identification of items that were grammatically correct or incorrect, and consideration of the incorrect items in terms of the three features grammaticality, form class and rule. The results will be presented first for the effects of the task-related factors detail, time and response; the subsequent sections will examine each detail condition separately and consider as well the effects of the learner-related factors level and language.

Overview of task-related factors

An examination of the assessment of grammaticality, that is, the distinction between correct and incorrect sentences, places a bias in favour of incorrect items for the more detailed conditions. In these conditions, that is, 2 and 3, any indication of error fulfills the grammaticality criterion. Correct sentences, however, are constant in both number and response required throughout the conditions hence more informative comparisons can be made for these items than for the incorrect sentence.

The data for the proportion of sentences accurately identified as correct or incorrect is presented for all conditions in Table VI-3. Thus a response in Condition 2 which erroneously judges an adjective error as a verb error, for example, is considered accurate for this analysis in that some error was identified.

For all three measures, there is a significant difference between condition 1 and the other two conditions.

Insert Table VI-3 about here

For correct judgements, condition 1 is easier than the two detailed conditions, ($F(2,314) = 62.69$, $p < .001$). The proliferation of acceptable options for conditions 2 and 3 appears to make these conditions easier for incorrect items, the stable and more stringent response required for correct items indicates more accurately the relative difficulty of these conditions.

The effect of the two time conditions interacts with the sentence grammaticality, or response. For the correct items there is a slight advantage in the spontaneous time condition ($F(1,314) = 4.58$, $p < .05$); for the incorrect items the facilitation is in the delay time condition ($F(1,314) = 85.20$, $p < .001$). These differences will be explored in greater detail for the separate conditions and items.

The global judgements of sentence grammaticality may be examined in terms of the form class error responsible in each sentence. Thus while the criterion is still the indication of some error in the incorrect sentences, the scores can be calculated separately for the sentences in each form class. These scores are presented in Table VI-4. Tabulating the data in this way elucidates two important interactions: detail condition by form class ($F(6,942) = 81.68$, $p < .001$) and form class by time ($F(3,942) = 9.69$, $p < .001$).

Insert Table VI-4 about here

The differential effect of form class in the three detail conditions distinguishes the correct sentences from the three types of error. In condition 1, the correct sentences are identified more easily than any of those with errors; for conditions 2 and 3 the reverse occurs. This is a more detailed reiteration of the effect reported in Table VI-3.

The time condition affects performance for only two types of items: correct sentences were identified better in the spontaneous condition (Newman-Keuls: $p < .05$) and adjective errors benefited in the delay condition (Newman-Keuls: $p < .01$). The judgement that pronoun and verb sentences contained some error was not affected by the delay.

There was no overall difference found in subjects' ability to identify incorrect sentences as a function of the form class involved in the error.

Condition 1: Grammaticality

The scores for subjects in condition 1 are presented in Table VI-5. To make all scores out of 18, the scores for the identification of correct sentences was multiplied by 3 as there were 6 correct sentences but 18 incorrect ones.

Insert Table VI-5 about here

The time factor was not significant for this condition; subjects performed comparably in both the spontaneous and delay situations.

The response factor, given in condition 1 as the difference between correct and incorrect sentences, was significant ($F(1,84) = 46.97$, $p < .001$). It was easier for subjects to identify the correct sentences than to identify the incorrect ones.

Neither of the learner-related factors, level or language, affected the performance in this condition.

Condition 2: Form class

The criterion for responding in condition 2 was an indication of the form class involved in the incorrect sentences. The scores for subjects in this condition according to the three form class types and correct sentences are presented in Table VI-6.

Insert Table VI-6 about here

The effect of response is not significant; there is no general difference in the ability to answer any of the four types of items. The effect of time is significant: Performance is better in the delay condition than in the spontaneous ($F(1,91) = 18.75$, $p < .001$).

The interaction between time and response is significant ($F(3,273) = 8.58$, $p < .001$) and is more revealing than are the main effects. The delay facilitated the identification and assignment to form class of each of the incorrect items (Newman-Keuls: $p < .01$) but there was no difference between the time conditions for the correct items.

While the learner-related factor of language had no effect, level was significant in the analysis ($F(2,91) = 17.94$, $p < .001$). The Civil Service subjects scored better than did the Grade 10 students (Newman-Keuls: $p < .05$) and they in turn performed better than did the Grade 12 students (Newman-Keuls: $p < .01$).

Condition 3: Rule

The responses in condition 3 indicated the rule that was violated for each of the incorrect sentences. The scores in Table VI-7 have been aggregated by summing the score out of 2 for each rule within a form class and producing a total out of 6 for the form class.

Insert Table VI-7 about here

The differences among the 10 response types are significant (F(9,828) = 19.67, p .001), and three groups of responses based on relative difficulty can be identified: Easy (Adjective 3), Middle (Correct, Adjective 1, Pronoun 2, Verb 2), and Hard (Adjective 2, Pronoun 1, Pronoun 3, Verb 1, Verb 3). The general result is that the rules which refer to specific lexical items are easier than the rules which are more abstract. Thus, the easiest rule is that which applies only to the adjectives 'bon(ne)' and 'grand(e)'; the moderately difficult ones apply to a larger domain of specifiable items, such as colour adjectives or object pronouns; the most difficult rules are general directives for agreement or tense formation.

While the overall effect of time was not significant for this condition, there was an interaction between time and response (F(9,828) = 3.07, $p < .01$). Some of the response items more greatly benefited from the delay condition than did others.

In this demanding condition of detail, both learner-related variables contributed to performance. The effect of level was significant (F(2,92) = 20.39, $p < .001$), the difference between each level contributing to the effect. The lowest scores were obtained by the Grade 12 students, the next by the Grade 10 students, and the highest by the Civil Servants. This is the same order of proficiency found in condition 2 even though the subjects in both conditions were different. Thus this finding constitutes a genuine replication of the level effect.

The effect of language gave a significant advantage to those subjects who had fluent command of some language other than English (F(1,92 = 3.72, $p < .05$). The mean scores for each level and language cell are reported in Table VI-8.

Insert Table VI-8 about here

Discussion and Implications

The discussion shall attempt to support the following three arguments: first, that there is an initial judgement of grammaticality that is based on implicit knowledge; second, the formal explicit information differentially affects sentences which are grammatical and those which are not; and third, that learner-related variables such as level of study and language background have their greatest, if not sole, effect on tasks which are most difficult, that is, those which maximally access explicit knowledge.

The evidence for these arguments is based primarily on the interactions obtained in the analyses of variance. The assumption is that a significant improvement in the delay condition occurs when the learner consults explicit knowledge during the delay to retrieve necessary information. Identical performance in both spontaneous and delay conditions implies that explicit knowledge is not consulted during the delay and the intuitive response is always used.

The first postulation is that there is an intuitive judgement of overall grammaticality made prior to the analysis of the error which may be present. Consequently, correct sentences would not interact with the time condition because the initial judgement of grammaticality is sufficient for the response. This was found to be the case for all conditions; there was even an advantage for correct sentences in the spontaneous condition for the data reported in Table VI-4. Once a sentence is judged as incorrect, however, the more detailed information about the error involves the use of explicit knowledge. Thus, the judgements in condition 1 for incorrect sentences end at this intuitive stage and hence should also be unaffected by the time condition. This, too, was found to be the case (Table VI-5). Similarly, the responses in conditions 2 and 3 which indicate that the ungrammatical sentences contain an error, even though the wrong form-class choice was made, should similarly be unaffected by the time condition. The subjects should at least select some incorrect category. This finding was reported in Table VI-4 for the pronoun and verb sentences; the selection of some error category for these sentences was the same in both the spontaneous and delay conditions. It is only when the exact information was scored as the criterion that the delay condition produced better results (Tables VI-6 and VI-7). Further, the delay condition produced an ordering of difficulty for these decisions: adjective errors were easiest and verb errors most difficult to classify. Thus we conclude that grammaticality decisions are made initially on an intuitive basis that may or may not be supportable by the subjects' knowledge of the reason for the decision or the nature of the error. The role of detail in the present study is that judgements about levels of detail beyond global grammaticality require the intervention of explicit linguistic knowledge and thereby benefit from a greater response time.

The second conclusion from the study is in some ways a corollary of the first. Becuase of the process of judging grammaticality postulated in the above argument, there is a qualitative difference between judgements of sentences which are correct and those which are incorrect. Since detailed information about errors must rely on information in explicit knowledge, intuitive judgements of grammaticality are reliable only for sentences which are correct. The evidence for this in the study was that judgements of correct sentences were comparable for both time conditions, and sometimes even better for spontaneous, while accurate incorrect judgements required time. Thus formal explicit information is not retrieved in the judgement of correct sentences and as such it may be said that language learners have an intuitive sense of 'grammaticality'. Such a construct may be essential to any use of the language; it permits language learners to receive language input without constant analysis of its grammaticality. Ungrammatical sentences would presumably be identified at this intuitive level and only then would they need to undergo explicit grammatical analysis to determine the nature of the problem.

The learner-related variables discriminated learners only for the more difficult tasks. The effect of level demonstrated for conditions 2 and 3 was not clear, however, since the lowest scores were obtained by the Grade 12 class which was judged to be the intermediate level of proficiency in the study. Perhaps something in the curriculum at this level may be responsible for the effect. Possibly Grade 12 students were over-confident of their intuitive judgements and did not make adequate use of explicit knowledge. The evidence for this conjecture is that Grade 12 students generally showed the least improvement in the delay conditions.

The language effect was more consistent; fluent command of another language was advantageous to performance but only in condition 3. It may be that such knowledge is useful only for very challenging tasks. Since condition 3 was the one most reliant on explicit knowledge, it may also be the case that this variable has its greatest impact on formal or explicit knowledge and so directly benefited the learners in this condition. It would be interesting to compare these results to those one might obtain in a similarly formal task but measuring learner variables in terms of a more implicit knowledge or, using the same learner variable, testing a more conversational aspect of language. For example, if the measure were length of stay in the community in which the target language was spoken, the learners who have had greater exposure to the language may enjoy an implicit or intuitive advantage which would facilitate performance tasks measuring communicative ability.

Four specific recommendations for further research in this area follow from the results of this study. First, the extent to which the results obtained are a function of the type of task used must be determined. The selection of the grammaticality judgement task was motivated by the perceived flexibility of the task in allowing both formal and informal types of responses. The interactions between explicit and implicit knowledge observed should be compared for tasks which are more deliberately constructed to test one of these sources of knowledge, such as discrete point achievement tests and conversations with native speakers.

Second, the general effect of rules found in the present study indicated a difficulty component which was related to the locus of control of the rule. Thus, rules pertaining to single lexical items were easiest and those to general sentential structures were most difficult. This finding needs to be explored in greater detail so that questions such as the following may be considered: Is explicit knowledge required only for rules of broader focus? Are lexical rules stored in implicit knowledge? This focus variable should be counterbalanced with form class in a design that permits the simultaneous examination of both form class and domain of control.

Third, the effect of level of study found in the data was surprising. Typically one would expect a higher level of study to be associated with greater achievement. The decrease in performance exhibited by the Grade 12 subjects in both conditions 2 and 3 needs to be examined in terms of aspects of their program of study, aspects of their own experience with the language, and perhaps attitudes towards the language and the testing situation. The problem seems to be related to an insufficient use of explicit knowledge, and the reasons for that avoidance need to be identified.

Finally, proficiency with another language benefited subjects only in condition 3 in which the most explicit knowledge was required. The strategy of relying on such information, however, was clearly advantageous to those who employed it. Several questions follow from this finding: Is it possible to exploit such knowledge in more intuitive tasks? Does the benefit of other languages accrue only for formal explicit task with sufficient response times. Can learners be encouraged or trained to use their knowledge of other languages to increase its benefit to the less detailed tasks?

The primary pedagogical contribution of the study is in the identification of the role of explicit formal information in at least one type of language task. It is clear that such information is not always necessary, as in the intuitive judgement of grammaticality, nor is it always useful, as in the identification of very specific lexical rules. Where explicit knowledge is required, however, time is necessary for the learner to retrieve the relevant information and incorporate it into his response. Some factors which affect his ability to do so are his level of study and knowledge of other languages. The implication for language training is that the learner's intuitions must be developed and encouraged and that efficient strategies for consulting explicit knowledge when necessary must be trained. Concentration on only the formal aspects of language and rule formation not only precludes important aspects of the language but ignores as well the use of the learner's great intuitve resource.

Table VI-1

Experimental design and number of subjects per group

		Detail Condition			
Level	Language	1	2	3	Total
Grade 10	English	26	33	32	124
	Other	[illegible]	14	8	
Grade 12	English	34	43	37	145
	Other	12	7	12	
Civil Service	English	12	9	14	48
	Other	3	7	3	
Total		98	113	106	317

Table VI-2

Response criteria for each detail condition

		Sentence Structure								
Detail Condition	Correct	Incorrect								
		Adjective			Pronoun			Verb		
		1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
1	C	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I
2	C	A	A	A	P	P	P	V	V	V
3	C	A1	A2	A3	P1	P2	P3	V1	V2	V3

Table VI-3

Judgements of sentence grammaticality across conditions
(Scores are proportion of accurate judgements)

	Detail	1		2		3		Mean
	Response	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect	
Time	Spontaneous	.68	.47	.38	.65	.29	.68	.53
	Delay	.61	.50	.36	.72	.30	.71	.53
	Mean	.64	.48	.37	.69	.30	.69	

Table VI-4

Judgements of sentence grammaticality according to form class across conditions
(Scores are out of 6)

	Detail		1				2				3				Mean
	Form class		Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	
TIME	Spontaneous	$\bar{x}$	4.08	2.53	2.81	3.08	2.29	3.76	4.05	4.02	1.76	3.97	4.16	4.08	3.38
		s.d.	1.16	1.26	1.21	1.33	1.36	1.21	1.36	1.31	1.51	1.44	1.58	1.60	
	Delay	$\bar{x}$	3.67	3.00	2.84	3.13	2.13	4.38	4.23	4.35	1.82	4.36	4.29	4.09	3.52
		s.d.	1.21	1.35	1.26	1.36	1.35	1.33	1.35	1.40	1.67	1.35	1.47	1.55	
	Mean		3.88	2.76	2.83	3.11	2.21	4.07	4.14	4.19	1.79	4.17	4.23	4.09	

Table VI-5

Condition 1: Mean scores for response, time and level out of 18

Level		Grade 10 (N=29)		Grade 12 (N=46)		Civil Service (N=15)		Mean
Response		Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect	Correct	Incorrect	
Spontaneous	$\bar{x}$	11.72	9.41	13.40	7.90	11.38	8.79	10.43
	s.d.	3.54	2.18	3.46	1.73	4.22	3.25	
Delay	$\bar{x}$	11.96	10.08	10.35	8.01	12.75	9.15	10.38
	s.d.	3.86	3.00	3.66	2.06	3.00	2.67	
Mean		11.84	9.75	11.88	7.96	12.07	8.97	

Table VI-6

Condition 2: Mean scores for response, time and level out of 6

Level		Grade 10 (N=34)				Grade 12 (N=49)				Civil Service (N=14)				Mean
Response		Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	
Spontaneous	$\bar{x}$	2.37	1.90	2.11	1.83	1.89	1.75	1.57	1.44	3.57	2.00	2.57	3.36	2.20
	s.d.	1.24	1.22	1.50	1.40	1.16	1.20	1.01	0.98	0.98	1.52	1.38	1.39	
Delay	$\bar{x}$	2.28	2.59	2.67	2.27	1.58	2.46	1.72	1.54	3.36	3.93	3.36	3.71	2.63
	s.d.	1.54	1.43	1.43	1.58	1.17	1.06	1.28	0.87	1.11	1.62	1.44	1.35	
Mean		2.33	2.25	2.39	2.05	1.73	2.11	1.65	1.49	3.46	2.97	2.97	3.54	

Table VI-7

Condition 3: Mean scores for response, time and level out of 6
(Form class scores are the sum for the three rules)

Level		Grade 10 (N=34)				Grade 12 (N=48)				Civil Service (N=16)				Mean
Response		Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	Corr.	Adj.	Pron.	Verb	
Spontaneous	$\bar{x}$	2.35	1.96	1.75	1.28	1.44	1.18	1.00	0.47	3.27	2.35	2.38	1.78	1.76
	s.d.	1.54	2.29	2.04	2.01	1.26	1.60	1.52	1.12	1.31	0.73	2.11	1.45	
Delay	$\bar{x}$	2.52	2.24	1.72	1.58	0.94	1.19	0.96	0.64	3.58	3.74	2.27	1.45	1.90
	s.d.	1.83	2.27	2.00	2.02	1.09	1.57	1.46	1.13	1.20	2.08	2.52	2.04	
Mean		2.43	2.10	1.73	1.43	1.19	1.19	0.98	0.56	3.43	3.05	2.33	1.62	

Table VI-8

Condition 3: Effects of level and language on performance
(Scores out of 2)

Level		Grade 10	Grade 12	Civil Service	Mean
English	$\bar{x}$	0.56	0.35	0.62	0.51
	N	26	36	13	
Other	$\bar{x}$	0.65	0.28	1.00	0.64
	N	8	12	3	
Mean		0.61	0.32	0.81	

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APPENDIX A

DISCOURSE FUNCTIONS

Move Type	Discourse Function	Coding Symbol	Description
I. Initiate	I.1 informative	in	provides new information about or directs attention to the topic of the discourse.
	I.2 administrative directive	di	sets the stage for verbal or non-verbal behaviours which are to follow.
	I.3 disciplinary directive	dd	directs attention to classroom comportment.
	I.4 social formality	soc	refers to social formulae such as greetings, leavetaking.
II. Solicit	II.1 special information	sp	requests a specific or expected response. The respondent has no freedom of choice in the required response.
	II.2 general information	gen	requests an opinion, an idea or an unexpected response. The respondent has some freedom of choice in his response.
	II.3 modelling	mo	provides a linguistic model to be imitated.
	II.4 reading	rd	reading aloud.
	II.5 clue	cu	provides a grammar clue or a cross-lingual clue to assist respondent in formulating a response.
	II.6 clarify	cl	rephrases original request to assist respondent in formulating a response.
	II.7 verify	ve	requests confirmation that a previous statement has been heard or understood correctly.
	II.8 translate	tr	requests translation.

Move Type	Discourse Function	Coding Symbol	Description
III. Respond	III.1 complete response	r	provides a complete or acceptable response in which the minimal information required by the solicit is present.
	III.2 incomplete	/r	does not provide the minimal required information.
	III.3 repetition	re	repeats previous utterance.
IV. React	IV.1 accept	ac	confirms that the response has been heard and that it is appropriate. A non-evaluative, neutral reaction.
	IV.2 reject	rj	identifies the reply as inappropriate and unacceptable. Neutral and non-evaluative.
	IV.3 positive evaluation	+1	presents a positive estimation of a previous response.
	IV.4 negative evaluation	-1	presents a negative estimation of a previous response.
	IV.5 explicit correction	C1	provides the correct form following an incorrect response.
	IV.6 implicit correction	C2	indicates an incorrect response by placing emphasis on the incorrect item or by otherwise localizing the error.
	IV.7 comment	co	provides additional information by expanding or elaborating on a response.
	IV.8 noise	~	
	IV.9 laughter	ha	

APPENDIX B

Appendix B

Transcript of Grade 6 Core

Lesson Segment

1.1 T 1 Bonjour classe

C 2 Bonjour Madame

T 3 Bonjour. / 4 Aujourd'hui c'est quel jour?
2.1.1 C'est quel jour?

S 5 C'est mercredi.

T 6 Oui./ 7 Nommez les sept jours...Danny

S 8 Lundi, mardi, mercredi, jeudi, vendredi, samedi, dimanche.

T 9 Très bien./ 10 Ah, nommez les cinq mois. Oui?

2.1.2 S 11 Septembre, octobre, novembre, décembre, janvier.

T 12 Oui./ 13 Aujourd'hui c'est janvier? Oui ou non? C'est janvier?

S 14 Non, ce n'est pas janvier.

T 15 Oui,/ 16 c'est février./ 17 Répétez "fé".

2.1.3 C 18 fe

T 19 fé (Bb) Comme ça.

C 20 fé

T 21 février

C 22 février

T 23 février

C 24 février/

2.1.4 T 25 Catherine?

S 26 février

T 27 Oui./ 28 Jason

S 29 février

T 30 Oui./ 31 (points to student)

S ^{3} février

T ^{3} (points)

S ^{3} février

T^{35}uh huh. / ^{36}et la classe.

C ^{37}février.

T ^{38}C'est quel mois aujourd'hui? C'est janvier?

S^{39}Non, c'est février.

T^{40}Très bien. / ^{41}Nommez les six mois. Oui. Simon?

S^{42}septembre, octobre, novembre, décembre, janvier, fevri... er.

T^{43}Non, pas exactement... / ^{44}fé

S ^{45}février

T^{46}Oui.../ ^{47}Simon

S^{48}février

T^{49}Très bien. / ^{50}Février. Classe.

C^{51}février

T^{52}Oui. / ^{53}C'est quelle année?

2.1.5 S ^{54}Dix neuf cent soixante dix-huit.

T^{55}Oui. / ^{56}Alors quelle est la date complète?
Quelle est la date? Oui.

S ^{57}C'est mercredi, le quinze février, dix neuf cent soixante dix-huit.

T^{58}Très bien, Benny. / ^{59}Ah, regardez ici. / ^{60}Hier c'était quelle fête?
2.2.1 Comment s'appelle la fête? C'était Noël?

S ^{61}Shake heads "non"

T^{62}Non. / ^{63}Qu'est-ce que c'est... Wayne?

S ^{64}Saint... Saint Valentin

T ^{65}Très bien. Saint Valentin. (picture of heart)
^{66}Qu'est-ce que c'est? Oui.

S^{67}un coeur.

T ^{68}C'est un coeur.

S ^{69}C'est un coeur.

T 70 Oui. / 71 Et ça? (picture) Oui.

S 72 C'est un cupidon.

T 73 Très bien. / 74 Et ici, qu'est-ce que c'est? Ça. Oui.

S 75 C'est un coeur.

T 76 Oui. / 77 Et ça. Qu'est-ce que c'est (same picture). Vous souvenez? Oui.

S 78 C'est un souris.

T 79 C'est un souris.

S 80 C'est un souris.

T 81 Oui. / 82 La classe. C'est un souris.

C 83 C'est un souris.

T 84 Et qu'est-ce qu'il fait le petit souris? Qu'est-ce qu'il fait? Il mange?

S 85 Shake heads 'non'.

T 86 Non. / 87 Qu'est-ce qu'il fait? Oui.

S 88 Il embrasse.

T 89 Il embrasse. Oui. / 90 Il embrasse l'autre petit souris. /

2.3.1 91 Quel temps fait-il? Oui. (picture)

S 92 Il fait beau.

T 93 Oui. / 94 Quel temps fait-il? (picture) Danny.

S 95 Il fait du vent.

T 96 Quel temps fait-il? (picture) Katherine.

S 97 ?

T 98 Oui. / 99 Jason (picture)

S 100 Il fait froid.

T 101 Oui. / 102 Cindy. (picture)

S 103 Il pleut.

T 104 Uh huh. / 105 Graham (picture)...Oui.

S^{106} Il fait du soleil.

T^{107} Très bien. /^{108} Graham...

S^{109} Il fait du soleil.

T^{110} Oui. C'est ça. /^{111} Et maintenant, regardez. /^{112} Quel temps fait-il?
2.3.2 (picture) Il fait chaud.

C^{113} Il fait chaud.

T^{114} Quel temps fait-il?

S^{115} Il fait chaud.

T^{116} Oui. /^{117} (points)

S^{118} Il fait chaud.

T^{119} Quel temps fait-il?

S^{120} Il fait chaud.

T^{121} Oui. /^{122} Et voilà l'image. (picture)
Regardez. /^{123} Il fait (whistles)...il fait chaud.
^{124} Quel temps fait-il Jason?

S^{125} Il fait chaud.

T^{126} Oui. /^{127} Quel temps...?

S^{128} Il fait chaud.

T^{129} Oui. /^{130} Quel temps fait-il en septembre?
2.3.3 Quel temps fait-il en septembre?

S^{131} Il fait froid.

T^{132} En septembre?

Ss.^{133} Oui.

T^{134} Quelque fois oui, /^{135} mais d'habitude quel temps fait-il? Oui.

S^{136} Il fait chaud.

T^{137} Oui. /^{138} Quel temps fait-il en décembre? Blair.

S^{139} Il nage.

T^{140} Non, (light laughter)
^{141} Quel temps fait-il? Oui.

S^{142} Il neige.

T 143 Il neige. Oui (Bb).
/ 144 Et quel temps fait-il en février? Robert.

S 145 Il fait froid.

T 146 Oui. / 147 Et aujourd'hui, quel temps fait-il?
Don.

S 148 Uh, il fait froid.

T 149 Oui...possible. / 150 Une autre?

S 151 Il fait du soleil.

T 152 Oui, / 153 et une autre? Danny.

S 154 Il fait beau.

T 155 Oui. /

Appendix B

Activity, Theme and Topic Divisions for Grade 6 Core Lesson Segment

1 OPENING REMARKS

1.1 Social Formalities

2 REVIEW OF VOCABULARY AND IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS

2.1 Calendar Date

2.1.1 Days of the week
.2 Months of the year
.3 Pronunciation drill of new item: 'février'
.4 Recapitulation of 2.1.2 and 2.1.3
.5 Today's complete date

2.2 Holiday Vocabulary

2.2.1 Valentine Day picture descriptions

2.3 Weather Idioms

2.3.1 Review of idioms with picture cues
.2 Introduction of new item: 'il fait chaud'
.3 General questioning

Appendix B

Transcript of Grade 6 Immersion

Lesson Segment

1.1 T 1 Comment s'est passé la représentation hier soir?

S 2 Bon

C 3 (noisy comments) ~

T 4 Sherry, Sherry, laisse parler Mike. /
5 Il y avait autant de monde hier soir qu'il y avait mardi soir?
6 (noise) ~
7 Sherry, ça fait la troisième fois que je te dis
8 (noise) ~ /

1.2 T 9 Un incident comme ils sont produits un peu trop souvent. Les grands -
vous êtes les grands maintenant - vous courez dans les couloirs, ssh. /
10 Jane, tu me laisse parler. / 11 Vous courez dans les couloirs, vous courez
dans les escaliers, vous bousculez les petits. Et c'est ce que vient
de faire André avec cette petite de la classe du fond là-bas. Et ça
n'arrive pas qu'avec ça. Avant les classes, avant le lunch, jusqu'au
moment de sortir pour, à midi, Jeff comme d'habitude a trouvé moyen
de donner des coups de punch et ce n'est pas la première fois Jeff.
A chaque fois qu'on sort à midi / 12 Jeff! / 13 à chaque fois qu'on sort à
midi j'ai quelqu'un qui vient se plaindre que tu as donné des coups
de punch, et ça commence à bien faire. Bon - c'est une chose - /
14 maintenant on passe au travail.
Boyd. /

1.3 S oui

T 15 ~ hier soir comment ça c'est passé?

S 16 ~

T 17 c'est-à-dire, les spectateurs réagissaient plus, ils applaudissaient
plus fort.

S 18 Il n'y avait pas beaucoup de personnes.

T 19 Ah oui il y avait plus de personnes qu'hier soir ~

S 20 il y avait beaucoup plus d'enfants et les enfants

T 21 ~ Est-ce qu'il y a, il y avait plus d'enfants - André - il y avait
beaucoup d'enfants qui connaissent déjà l'opérette?

S 22 beaucoup de petits enfants ont été ~

T 23 Bon. / 24 Ce soir - ce soir c'est plus tôt eh?

S 25 Oui. 7 h. 15
(noisy answers)

S 26 Est-ce que tu viens?

T 27 Ce soir, non. / 28 Ce soir je surveille les indiens encore une fois malheureusement. Je surveille encore les indiens. J'irai voir l'opérette le 28. /

1.4 T 29 Bon. Rapidement maintenant je vous redistribue les cahiers d'expression écrite. Nous corrigeons un texte ensemble, nous le recopions cette fois, d'accord. Hier nous avons fait très rapidement ce travail, avant de sortir hier soir. On fait la même chose - /

1.5 30 Melissa, Ted, Ted -/ 31 une chose sur laquelle je veux insister. Maintenant vous avez remarqué qu'il y a deux dames qui essaient d'enregistrer ce qui va se passer dans la classe. Il faut que elles puissent entendre correctement l'enregistrement. Il faut pas que vous parliez tous ensemble, que vous remuiez vos grosses chaussures comme vous avez l'habitude de le faire. Par conséquent, quand vous allez parler vous levez le doigt - vous ne criez pas 'Monsieur'
32 (noise) ~
33 Bon maintenant il faut se décider à travailler. /

1.6 S 34 ~

T 35 Vous parlez de ça avec M. ~ à savoir exactement /
36 Bon. Dépêches-toi Sherry s'il te plaît. /
37 Bon j'attends qu'on se dépêche un peu. Karine, dépêchons-nous un peu. /
38 Qui est-ce qui n'a pas son cahier?
39 (noise/questions and answers with individual students)
40 Je ne sais pas où il est Karine. Tu as bien regardé dans ton sac?

S 41 ~ /

1.7 T 42 Bon. Vous posez les stylos, vous écoutez, je vous lis le texte, première phrase. / 43 Mike - tu n'as pas besoin de ton stylo maintenant, tu as besoin d'écouter.
André -/
44 Je relis tout le texte, du début, ce qu'on avait copié et la suite du texte a été écrit par ~ /

2.1 45 "Il était huit heures du soir. Un blizzard terrible soufflait sur la ville. La rue était presque déserte et la chaussée était couverte de glace. ~ a un poteau, un vieux monsieur tenait un sac à provisions dans son bras libre. Il attendait pour traverser la rue. Soudain, le feu est passé au vert. Le feu est passé au vert quand le vieux monsieur a lâché le poteau. Il a commencé à marcher quand une auto qui ne pouvait pas s'arrêter est passé. Il a perdu son équilibre sur la chaussée couverte de glace et son sac à provisions est allé dans l'air et a frappé l'auto en plein dans le pare-brise." /

2.2 46 Voilà pour le reste de l'histoire. Elle a terminé en faisant la phrase. / 47 Pas mal. / 48 On va pouvoir améliorer ça. Quelques fautes d'orthographe - on va essayer de corriger directement. Anne?

S 49 Au ~ est-ce qu'il faut

T 50 la partie qu'on avait copiée au tableau avant?

S 51 No, no avec un 't', le feu était vert, tu ajoutais ça, au tableau

T 52 Oui, c'est très bien. / 53 Je répète, James, que pour que l'enregistrement soit utile, on évite de faire des bruits par - comme tu es en train d'en faire.
2.3 Tu n'as pas touché à ton cahier. /

2.4 T 54 Oui, Anne. Anne a absolument raison. / 55 Andréa a répété à la dernière phrase qui était copiée au tableau, c'est "soudain le feu est passé au vert" et Andréa a continué en disant "le feu est passé au vert quand le vieux monsieur a lâché le poteau il a commencé - / 56 ah, c'est pas -

S 57 oh - aussitôt qu'il a lâché le poteau

T 58 Oui c'est ça, / 59 et on peut continuer directement, on ne répète pas de cette façon. / 60 Bon, je recommence. Je relis de toute façon la première
2.5 phrase. On va essayer d'abord de corriger celle-ci.

61 'Soudain le feu' - / 62 on va copier ça. C'est la dernière phrase qui était copiée au tableau. Tu veux copier cette phrase-là pour commencer, tu commences vers la gauche 'Soudain le feu est passé au vert'.

Commence ~
Vous pouvez tous copier cette phrase-là.
Prenez une page nouvelle, vous mettez la date, et vous copiez cette phrase.
Un stylo pour Mike?
63 ... (Ss copy text) /

2.6.1 64 Bon, maintenant à partir de là nous continuons. Levez le doigt. /
65 'Le feu est passé au vert quand le vieux monsieur a lâché le poteau: il a commencé à marcher quand une auto qui ne pouvait pas s'arrêter est passée'. / 66 Ça c'est une phrase. /
Donna?

S 67 Après poteau on met un point.

T 68 met un point après 'poteau'. "Le feu est passé au vert quand le vieux monsieur a lâché le poteau." /
69 On laisse cette phrase-là. Il faut commencer à partir d'ici. /

2.6.2 S 70 aussitôt qu'il a lâché le poteau

T 71 aussitôt, oui
72 'aussitôt qu'il a lâché le poteau le vieux monsieur a commencé à marcher' / 73 très bien. / 74 Je relis ça une fois:
75 'aussitôt... à marcher' - 76 bon, on va mettre ça.
vous attendez qu'à le copier.

Oui, vas-y. Faites un accent. Faites-le pour de bon.
Voilà. 77 (Students copy)
78 'Aussitôt qu'il a lâché le poteau' - et quoi ensuite? - 'le vieux monsieur a commencé à marcher'.

2.6.3 S 79 le vieillard?

T 80 Bon, d'accord. /81 Qui est-ce qui vient ~ /
82 'le vieillard', d'accord.
83 On va remplacer 'le vieux monsieur' par 'le vieillard'.
84 'Aussitôt qu'il a lâché le poteau, le vieillard' - tu vas avoir de la chance - 'le vieillard a commencé à marcher'

S 85 ~

T 86 Qui peut prêter un stylo à Karine?

T Neil?

S 87 ~

T 88 Oui, je sais, mais peut-être que tu peux te forcer quand même./
89 Qu'est-ce que tu n'arrives pas à lire?

S 90 Soudain le feu est passé au vert, aussitôt -

T 91 aussitôt qu'il a lâché le poteau le vieillard a commencé à marcher.

2.6.4 S 92 ~ (spelling)

T 93 deux 'l'. quelle question - aussitôt - est-ce que... deux 's'

S 94 oh, c'est deux 's'.
95 (noise) ~

2.7 T 96 Bon, à partir de la prochaine phrase, Ed, tu vas t'appliquer, d'accord.
On évite la conversation inutile. /97 Neil? - André - tu as copié ça?

S 98 Oui.

T 99 Très bien.

Appendix B

Activity, Theme and Topic Divisions for Grade 6 Immersion Lesson Segment

1 OPENING REMARKS

1.1 Discussion of School Operetta

1.2 Disciplinary Lecture

1.3 Return to Discussion of 1.1

1.4 Administration of Work to Follow

1.5 Disciplinary Lecture

1.6 Classroom Management

1.7 Repeat of Instructions of 1.4

2 CORRECTION OF TEXT

2.1 Teacher Reads Text

2.2 Error Correction

2.2.1 Spelling error

2.3 Discipline

2.4 Error Correction

2.4.1 Repetition of phrases

2.5 Administration

2.6 Error Correction

2.6.1 Sentence division
.2 Conjunction: 'aussitôt'
.3 Synonyms: 'le vieux monsieur/le vieillard'
.4 Spelling

2.7 Discipline

APPENDIX C

CODING SHEET *CORE FRENCH*

ACTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		1 Initiate	2 Solicit	3 Respond	4 React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V	
	1	soc				1	4	1		greetings
	2			soc		4	1	1		
	3				soc	1	4	1		
	4		sp			1	4	1		
	5			r		2	1	1		
	6				ac	1	2	1		
	7		sp			1	2	1		
	8			r		2	1	1		
	9				+1	1	2	1		
	10		sp			1	4	1		
	11			r		2	1	1		
	12				ac	1	2	1		
	13		sp			1	4	1		
	14			r		2	1	1		
	15				ac	1	2	1		
	16				co	1	4	1		
	17	mo				1	4	1		pronunciation
	18			re		4	1	1		
	19	mo				1	4	1		
	20			re		4	1	1		
	21	mo				1	4	1		
	22			re		4	1	1		
	23	mo				1	4	1		
	24			re		4	1	1		
	25		re			1	2	1		
	26			re		2	1	1		
	27				ac	1	2	1		
	28		re			1	2	1		
	29			re		2	1	1		
	30				ac	1	2	1		
	31		re			1	2	0	1	points to s
	32			re		2	1	1		
	33		re			1	2	0	1	
	34			re		2	1	1		
	35				ac	1	2	0	1	shakes head, [illegible]
	36		re			1	4	1		
	37			re		4	1	1		
	38		sp			1	4	1		
	39			r		2	1	1		
	40				+1	1	2	1		
	41		sp			1	2	1		
	42			r		2	1	1		
	43				c2	1	2	1		

CODING SHEET

ACTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		Initiate	Solicit	Respond	React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V.	
	44	mo				1	2	1		
	45			r		2	1	1		
	46				ac	1	2	1		
	47		re			1	2	1		
	48			re		2	1	1		
	49				+1	1	2	1		
	50	mo				1	4	1		
	51			re		4	1	1		
	52				ac	1	4	1		
	53		sp			1	4	1		
	54			r		2	1	1		
	55				ac	1	2	1		
	56		sp			1	4	1		
	57			r		2	1	1		
	58				+1	1	2	1		
	59	di				1	4	1	2	picture cues
	60		sp			1	4	1	2	
	61			r		4	1	0	1	nod "no"
	62				ac	1	4	1		
	63		sp			1	2	1	2	
	64			r		2	1	1		
	65				+1	1	2	1		
	66		sp			1	4	1	2	
	67			r		2	1	1		
	68	mc				1	2	1		
	69			re		2	1	1		
	70				ac	1	2	1		
	71		sp			1	4	1	2	
	72			r		2	1	1		
	73				+1	1	2	1		
	74		sp			1	4	1	2	
	75			r		2	1	1		
	76				ac	1	2	1		
	77		sp			1	4	1	2	
	78			r		2	1	1		
	79	mc				1	2	1		
	80			re		2	1	1		
	81				ac	1	2	1		
	82	mc				1	4	1		
	83			re		4	1	1		
	84		sp			1	4	1	2	
	85			r		4	1	0	1	shake heads 'no'

CODING SHEET

CTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		Initiate	Solicit	Respond	React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V.	
	87		sp			1	4	1	2	
	88			r		2	1	1		
	89				ac	1	2	1		
	90				co	1	4	1		
	91		sp			1	4	1	2	
	92			r		2	1	1		
	93				ac	1	2	1		
	94		sp			1	2	1	2	designates S.
	95			r		2	1	1		
	96		sp			1	2	1	2	
	97			r		2	1	1		
	98				ac	1	2	1		
	99		sp			1	2	1	2	
	100			r		2	1	1		
	101				ac	1	2	1		
	102		sp			1	2	1	2	
	103			r		2	1	1		
	104				ac	1	2	0	1	nods 'uh huh'
	105		sp			1	2	1	2	
	106			r		2	1	1		
	107				+1	1	2	1		
	108		sp			1	2	1	2	
	109			r		2	1	1		
	110				ac	1	2	1		
	111	di				1	4	1		
	112	mo				1	4	1	2	picture
	113			re		4	1	1		choral rep
	114		re			1	2	1		
	115			re		2	1	1		
	116				ac	1	2	1		
	117		re			1	2	0	1	points
	118			re		2	1	1		
	119		re			1	2	1		
	120			re		2	1	1		
	121				ac	1	2	1		
	122	di				1	4	1	2	
	123	in				1	4	1	2	
	124		re			1	2	1		
	125			re		2	1	1		
	126				ac	1	2	1		
	127		re			1	2	1		
	128			re		2	1	1		
	129				ac	1				

CODING SHEET

CTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		Initiate	Solicit	Respond	React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V.	
	130		gen			1	4	1		
	131			r		2	1	1		
	132				C2	1	2	1		
	133				ac	3	1	1		Group of Ss.
	134				ac	1	4	1		
	135		sp			1	4	1		
	136			r		2	1	1		
	137				ac	1	2	1		
	138		gen			1	2	1		
	139			h		2	1	1		poor pronunciation
	140				rj	1	2	1		
	141		gen			1	4	1		
	142			r		2	1	1		
	143				ac	1	2	1		
	144		gen			1	2	1		
	145			r		2	1	1		
	146				ac	1	2	1		
	147		gen			1	2	1		
	148			r		2	1	1		
	149				ac	1	2	1		
	150		gen			1	4	1		
	151			r		2	1	1		
	152				ac	1	2	1		
	153		gen			1	2	1		
	154			r		2	1	1		
	155				ac	1	2	1		
	156		sp			1	4	1		
	157		tr			1	4	1		
	158			tr		2	1	2		Eng transl
	159				ac	1	2	1		
	160	in				1	4	1		
	161		sp			1	4	1		
	162	di				1	4	1		
	163		sp			1	4	1		
	164			h		2	1	1		
	165				C1	1	2	1		
	166			r		2	1	1		
	167				+1	1	2	1		
	168		sp			1	2	1		
	169			/r		2	1	1		
	170				C1	2	1	1		self corrects
	171				ac	1	2	1		
			sp							

CODING SHEET - Immersion

ACTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		Initiate	Solicit	Respond	React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V.	
	1		gen			1	4	1		
	2			r		2	1	1		
	3				r	4	0	0	1	
	4	dd				1	2	1		
	5		gen			1	4	1		
	6				r	4	0	0	1	
	7	dd				1	2	1		
	8				r	4	0	0	1	
	9	dd				1	4	1		
	10	dd				1	2	1		
	11	dd				1	4	1		
	12	dd				1	2	1		
	13	dd				1	4	1		
	14	di				1	4	1		
	15		gen			1	2	1		
	16			r		2	1	1		
	17				co	1	2	1		
	18			r		2	1	1		
	19				c2	1	2	1		
	20			r		2	1	1		
	21		gen			1	2	1		
	22			r		2	1	1		
	23				ac	1	2	1		
	24		sp			1	4	1		
	25			r		3	1	1		
	26		gen			2	1	1		
	27			r		1	2	1		
	28			co		1	2	1		
	29	di				1	4	1		
	30	dd				1	3	1		
	31	dd				1	4	1		
	32				r	4	0	0	1	
	33	di				1	4	1		
	34		gen			2	1	1		
	35			r		1	2	1		
	36	di				1	2	1		
	37	di				1	4	1		
	38		gen			1	4	1		
	39				r	4	0	0	1	
	40	di				1	2	1		
	41			r		2	1	1		
	42	di				1	4	1		
	43	dd				1	[illegible]	1		

CODING SHEET

ACTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		Initiate	Solicit	Respond	React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V.	
	44	di				1	4	1		
	45	rd				1	4	1	2	Blackboard
	46				Co	1	4	1		
	47				+1	1	2	1		
	48	di				1	4	1		
	49		Sp			1	2	1		
	50				cl	1	2	1		
	51			r		2	1	1		
	52				+1	1	2	1		
	53	dd			↑	1	2	1		
	54				ac	1	2	1		
	55				co	1	4	1		
	56				C2	1	2	1		
	57			r		2	1	1		
	58				ac	1	2	1		
	59				Co	1	4	1		
	60	di				1	4	1		
	61	rd				1	4	1	2	
	62	di				1	4	1		
	63					4	0	0	1	Ss copy text
	64	di				1	4	1		
	65	rd				1	4	1	2	
	66	in				1	4	1		
	67				co	2	1	1		
	68				ac	1	2	1		
	69	di				1	4	1		
	70		sp			2	1	1		
	71				ac	1	2	1		
	72				rd	1	4	1	2	
	73				+1	1	2	1		
	74	di				1	4	1		
	75	rd				1	4	1	2	
	76	di				1	4	1		
	77					4	0	0	1	Ss copy
	78	rd				1	4	1		
	79		sp			2	1	1		
	80				ac	1	2	1		
	81	di				1	4	1		
	82				ac	1	2	1		
	83				co	1	4	1		
	84				rd	1	4	1		
	85		sp			2	1	1		
	86			r		1	2	1		

CODING SHEET

ACTIVITY	No	MOVE TYPES				OTHER ASPECTS				REMARKS
		Initiate	Solicit	Respond	React	Source	Target	Modality		
								Verbal	Non-V.	
	87		sp			2	1	1		
	88			r		1	2	1		
	89		gen			1	2	1		
	90			/r		2	1	1		
	91				rd	1	2	1	2	
	92		sp			2	1	1		
	93			r		1	2	1		
	94				Co	2	1	1		
	95				~	4	0	0	1	
	96	dd				1	2	1		
	97		di			1	3	1		
	98			r		3	1	1		
	99				ac	1	3	1		
	100	di				1	2	1		
	101	di				1	4	1		
	102	rd				1	4	1	2	
	103	in				1	4	1		
	104		sp			2	1	1		
	105				ac	1	2	1		
	106		sp			1	2	1		
	107			/r		2	1	1		
	108		sp			1	2	1		
	109			/r		2	1	1		
	110		re			1	2	1		
	111			/r		2	1	1		
	112				r	1	2	1		
	113			/r		2	1	1		
	114				C2	1	2	1		
	115			/r		2	1	1		
	116				C1	1	2	1		
	117			r		2	1	1		
	118				Co	1	4	1		
	119		sp			2	1	1		
	120			r		2	2	1		
	121				ac	1	2	1		
	122				Co	1	2	1		
	123	di				1	4	1		
	124					4	0	0	1	Ss copy text
	125	rd				1	4	1	2	
	126					4	0	0	1	
	127				C1	1	2	1		
	129	di				1	2	1		
	129	di				1	4	1		

APPENDIX D

Appendix D

French Grammar Rules

Adjective:

A 1. Colour adjectives always follow the noun.

A 2. If the noun is feminine, the adjective which describes it is also feminine.

A 3. The adjectives 'bon(ne)' and 'grand(e)' come before the noun they describe.

Pronoun:

P 1. The object pronouns come directly before the verb.

P 2. The direct object pronouns 'le', 'la', 'les' always come before the indirect object pronouns 'lui' and 'leur'.

P 3. The direct object pronoun conforms in number to the noun it replaces.

Verb:

V 1. The subject determines which form of the auxiliary verb is used.

V 2. Reflexive verbs form the 'passé composé' with 'être'.

V 3. To form the 'passé composé' you use the correct form of 'avoir' or 'être' plus the past participle of the verb.

APPENDIX E

Appendix E

French Sentences - Set A

P1 * 0. Maman a donné un petit pain à Paul et il a mangé le.

C 1. Il s'est dépêché, mais l'autobus était déjà parti.

P3 * 2. Il a voulu des livres, mais il ne l'a pas vus.

C 3. Elle a choisi une nouvelle robe, mais elle ne l'a pas achetée.

A1 * 4. Hier, mon petit noir chat a vu un oiseau et il l'a tué.

P1 * 5. Avant de partir pour l'Europe, elle a promis lui d'écrire.

P2 * 6. Il lui les a prêtés, mais elle ne les a jamais rendus.

C 7. Marc ne comprend pas, mais il ne lui demande pas d'explications.

V3 * 8. Il a acheté une belle montre qu'il lui a donne pour Noel.

P3 * 9. Mon frère a caché ma jupe rouge et je ne les ai pas trouvée.

A3 *10. Le mariage de la belle princesse était une occasion grande.

C 11. Nicole a fait des gâteaux délicieux qu'elle nous a offerts.

A2 *12. Le garçon est malade à cause de la mauvais nourriture.

V1 *13. On le lui a raconté, mais il l'ont oublié.

V2 *14. Pendant les grandes vacances ma petite soeur ne s'a jamais lavée.

A1 *15. Ma mère a perdu son joli blanc chapeau dans le métro.

C 16. Mon père cherche toujours ses lunettes et il les trouve sur son nez.

P2 *17. André a reçu de grandes nouvelles et il leur les a dites.

A2 *18. Hier, ma grand-mère m'a raconté une histoire mystérieux.

A3 *19. Il veut acheter une bicyclette bonne, mais il n'a pas d'argent.

V3 *20. Le mari de mon amie nous a vendre sa belle voiture.

V2 *21. Le chien s'a approché de ma vieille tante et elle l'a frappé.

P1 *22. Il lui a fait un bon dîner, mais elle n'a pas l'aimé.

C 23. Le professeur d'anglais lui dit qu'il fait souvent de graves fautes.

V1 *24. Notre père nous avons aidé à trouver de jolis petits cadeaux.

French Sentences - Set B

P1 * 0. Maman a donné un petit pain à Paul et il a mangé le.

C 1. Maintenant, je leur montre les image qui sont dans le grand livre bleu.

P3 * 2. Alain lance le ballon à Henri, mais il ne les attrape pas.

C 3. Les enfants les regardent par la fenêtre après le petit déjeuner.

A1 * 4. La bouteille de rouge vin que mon père t'a donnée vient de France.

P1 * 5. Ton papa lui a demandé du fromage et il a le mangé.

P2 * 6. Elle a fait des gants pour Marie et elle lui les a donnés.

C 7. C'est Jacques qui a vu cette petite annonce dans le nouveau journal.

V3 * 8. Le grand méchant chien a mange les beaux souliers de mon frère.

P3 * 9. Maman a acheté des souliers bruns, mais elle ne la porte pas.

A3 *10. Elle met le livre dans son sac grand avant de prendre l'autobus.

C 11. Elle leur a lu l'histoire du petit prince mais ils ne l'aimaient pas.

A2 *12. Il ne prend pas sa nouveau voiture, mais il la laisse chez lui.

V1 *13. Nous avons acheté une grosse orange que nous a mangée.

V2 *14. Nous nous avons rencontrés après la grande fête du Carnaval.

A1 *15. Je t'ai vu avec ton ami François qui a un brun chien.

C 16. Ce détail que Michel n'a pas remarqué est très important.

P2 *17. Il a trouvé de belles photos et il leur les a montrées.

A2 *18. Nos bons amis nous ont chanté une beau chanson de Noel.

A3 *19. Ce matin ils se sont levés d'heure bonne pour étudier.

V3 *20. Mon grand frère a dormir toute la nuit en face de la télé.

V2 *21. Elle s'a arrêtée au restaurant après sa dernière classe.

P1 *22. Il a écrit une longue lettre mais il n'a pas l'envoyée.

C 23. Nous nous sommes bien amusés avec nos vieux amis français.

V1 *24. J'ai acheté les bottes que tu m'avons montrées dans le magasin.